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MODERN ENGLISH

BOOK TWO

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MODERN ENGLISH

BOOK TWO

A PRACTICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR WITH EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION

BY

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PREFACE

THE two books of this series have been named the "Modern English" Course, first because they aim to present the subject of language in accordance with modern principles of teaching, and second because they make no attempt to teach historical grammar.

The chief purpose of this book is to awaken an interest in the correct use of the English of to-day. It aims to give our boys and girls a clear insight into the structure of the English sentence, ability to express their own thoughts and to understand the thoughts of others, and an appreciation of the higher uses of language in literature.

The fact is recognized that a knowledge of technical grammar exerts very little influence either on the daily speech or on the written compositions of children. Constant effort is made to correct the errors of speech common among young people, to increase their vocabulary, to teach them variety of expression, and to make correct expression easy and natural.

To bring about these results, there is a rational use of imitation to give mastery of proper forms. The exercises are adapted to the age of the pupil. The same attention is given to the formation of habits of correct oral speech as to written composition.

It is believed that the exercises will be found especially apt as illustrations of the principles set forth; that they have literary merit; and that they are within the comprehension of the pupil. Wherever feasible, they have been taken from standard literature.

The method of presentation is intended to be simple and direct. All subtleties are excluded. Nothing that can be of assistance in the way of explanation or illustration is omitted, yet it is hoped that nothing is explained that the pupils already know.

This book is divided into three parts. Part One is devoted to the Sentence. The functions of subject, predicate, modifier, and complement, and the uses of phrases and clauses in sentences are clearly explained, and enforced by ample exercises. In this connection the names of the parts of speech are taught, because experience shows that ability to recognize the parts of speech is a distinct help in the analysis of sentences. Modifying phrases and clauses are more easily grasped if the pupil is already familiar with the uses of the type modifiers, the adjective and the adverb. Likewise, as the prepositional phrase is the most frequent of all modifying phrases, it is an advantage for the pupil to know the name and nature of the word by which it is introduced.

As an aid in the analysis of sentences a system of diagrams is employed. The diagram is useful as a time-saving device, but may easily be used to excess. No attempt should be made to diagram intricate or extremely idiomatic sentences, as such sentences can be

more profitably analyzed orally. The diagram should be used as a means, not as an end.

Such subdivisions of the parts of speech as are likely to present difficulties, all inflections, and matters of syntax or construction — the facts usually classed as technical grammar — are reserved for Part II.

No exercises in "false syntax" are given, because any grade teacher can collect enough false syntax in a day to last a month. Besides, no language practice is more profitable than correcting the errors actually made by pupils in the schoolroom and on the playground.

While the aim of Parts One and Two is mainly to develop the power of oral and written expression, it is believed that the value of the work as a whole is increased by the addition of Part Three, consisting of practical suggestions and exercises in Composition. The exercises in Synonyms and in Word Building are intended to be suggestive rather than exhaustive. Other similar exercises can be worked out by teachers who feel that their classes need more practice of this kind. The treatment of the Paragraph is designed to be simple and practical. Pupils are given practice in finding topic sentences, and in developing topic sentences into paragraphs. The knowledge thus acquired naturally leads to the making of outlines — an important step in learning how to plan compositions.

Thanks are due to many principals and teachers of Buffalo who have helped in perfecting this work. Special acknowledgments are due to Mr. Arthur Detmers, Principal of the Lafayette High School; Mr. C. N. Mil-

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MODERN ENGLISH

BOOK TWO

PRACTICAL ENGLISH GRAMMAR

PART I

CHAPTER I[1]

LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR

1. When one person talks to another, he makes certain sounds called **words.** These words convey meanings to the mind of the person addressed. If the person who is talking utters the word *horse*, a picture of a horse is formed in the mind of the hearer. If the speaker adds the word *runs*, this word suggests an action and enables the listener to see, in imagination, the horse in the act of running. These mental pictures which different words suggest are called **ideas.** Words help to convey ideas because we have learned to associate the words with the ideas. Words like *dog*, *tree*, *house*, and *elephant* have meanings because they call up images of definite things. In the same way words like *kick*, *jump*, *strike*, are the signs of well-known actions, and *red*, *round*, *large*, *smooth*, *rough*, are signs of qualities which we recall through imagination. In fact, most of the words we use are signs of definite ideas.

2. This use of words to express thought is called **language.** The word *language* is derived from the Latin word *lingua*, which means "tongue." In early times, when few people could read or write, thoughts were communicated

[1] This chapter is intended for reading and conversation.

almost entirely by means of oral or spoken words. The word *language* now includes written as well as oral speech.

3. We should all take pride in learning to speak and write our own language correctly. We hear "bad English" used every day. We need some means of knowing for ourselves what is right and what is wrong in language.

We study **grammar** because it tells us how the best speakers and writers use English. Grammar is not a set of arbitrary rules for speaking and writing correctly, but a statement of the actual practice of those who are considered the best speakers and writers.

4. It is not enough simply to learn rules. Thousands of boys and girls continue to use expressions which they know to be ungrammatical, through mere force of habit. To them the wrong way seems the natural way. Nothing except drill and continued repetition of the correct forms of expression will enable us to overcome these habits.

To acquire an easy, natural, and correct use of English is possible only through continued practice of oral and written "composition."

5. An Idea is a mind picture.

A Word is a spoken or written sign of an idea.

Language is the expression of thought by means of spoken or written words.

Good English is the English used by the best speakers and writers.

English Grammar is the study that teaches us how the best speakers and writers use the English language.

CHAPTER II

SENTENCES

6. If a person should come up to you and say "blacksmith," you would naturally ask, "What about the blacksmith?" Even if the speaker should say, "that blacksmith across the street," still you would not be satisfied. But if he should say, "That blacksmith across the street works from morning till night," he would really tell you something about the blacksmith.

When words are so joined together that they **tell** something about some person or thing, they form a sentence.

7. DEFINITION. — **A Sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought**; as, *The dew was falling fast.*

8. The words "two black horses" are not a sentence, because they do not assert anything. The words "ran down the street" do not make a sentence, because there is nothing to show what the assertion is about. If we put the two groups of words together, we have a sentence. The words then express a complete thought, because they **tell** or **assert** something about some person or thing.

9. Begin every written sentence with a capital letter.

EXERCISE 1

Read the following groups of words and tell which groups express a complete thought. Ask yourself, *Does this tell or assert anything? Does it make a statement?*

1. Washington lived at Mt. Vernon.
2. The tops of distant mountains.
3. The goldenrod is yellow.
4. Down the long, narrow street.
5. Hollyhocks heavy with blossoms.

6. Kentucky produces much tobacco.
7. The mist rose from the meadows.
8. The sparkle and flash of the sunshine.
9. To hit the nail on the head.
10. Fast steamers cross the Atlantic in six days.

CHAPTER III

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

10. Study the following sentence: —

Thomas Jefferson was born in Virginia.

It is plain that the above sentence consists of two parts. First, we have the words *Thomas Jefferson*, which form the name of a person, and then we have the words which tell us something about him — that *he was born in Virginia*. We have found that when a group of words **tells** something about a person or thing it is a sentence, because it expresses a complete thought. A sentence consists of two parts, (1) what the sentence tells about, and (2) what it tells. What the sentence tells about is called the **subject**, and what it tells is called the **predicate**.

EXERCISE 2

1. Supply subjects for these predicates. Ask yourself, *What* burns? *What* blooms? *Who* studies? etc.

—— burns.	—— begins.	—— bloom.	—— jump.
—— studies.	—— rises.	—— flow.	—— rustle.
—— ripens.	—— spin.	—— march.	—— crawl.
—— blow.	—— float.	—— twinkle.	—— burst.
—— whisper.	—— sours.	—— bark.	—— glitters.
—— wither.	—— cackle.	—— laugh.	—— climbs.

2. Supply predicates that will tell *what the subject does.*

Farmers ——.	Balloons ——.	Ships ——.	Dogs ——.
Stars ——.	George ——.	Bullets ——.	Bombs ——.
Rabbits ——.	Hearts ——.	Rivers ——.	Carpenters ——.
Eagles ——.	Artists ——.	Bees ——.	School ——.
Wheels ——.	Axes ——.	Fishes ——.	Kites ——.

11. DEFINITIONS. — **The Subject of a sentence names that of which something is said or asserted**; as, *A rolling stone* gathers no moss.

The Predicate of a sentence is that which is said or asserted of the subject; as, The human arm *has thirty-two bones.*

A sentence that consists of one subject and one predicate is a Simple Sentence.

EXERCISE 3

1. Use the following groups of words as predicates: —

1. —— is a large city. 2. —— is the President of the United States. 3. —— discovered America. 4. —— is sailing into the harbor. 5. —— is governor. 6. —— is made of iron. 7. —— are made of glass. 8. —— grow in Florida. 9. —— empties into the Gulf of Mexico. 10. —— shines at night. 11. —— has two chimneys. 12. —— teaches geography. 13. —— is a grocer. 14. —— killed the chickens. 15. —— belongs to the sixth grade. 16. —— is very deep. 17. —— is made from cream. 18. —— dazzles the eyes. 19. —— is a pleasant season. 20. —— are floating in the sky.

2. Use the following words or groups of words as subjects: —

1. The Hudson River ——. 2. Maple sugar ——. 3. The state of Texas ——. 4. An island ——. 5. A river ——. 6. The Rocky Mountains ——. 7. Mt. Vernon ——. 8. Much petroleum ——. 9. Chicago ——. 10. Virginia ——. 11. Indians ——. 12. Baltimore ——. 13. The blacksmith ——. 14. Chimneys ——. 15. Stoves ——. 16. Honey ——. 17. California ——. 18. The capital of this state ——. 19. Grocers ——. 20. Carpets ——.

CHAPTER IV

FINDING THE SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

12. To find the subject, ask yourself, *What does the sentence tell about?* To find the predicate, ask yourself, *What does the sentence tell about the subject?* Remember that **tell** means **assert.**

EXERCISE 4

1. Separate the subject and the predicate of the following sentences by drawing a vertical line between them. Every word in each sentence belongs either to the subject or to the predicate; as,

The house of the merchant | was built of brick.

1. Evangeline | passed down the street.
2. Vast meadows stretched | to the eastward.
3. The sunset lighted | up the village street.
4. The moon rose | over the mist of the meadows.
5. Blue smoke rose | from a hundred chimneys.
6. The farmers | had no locks to their doors.
7. Gentle Evangeline | was the pride of the village.
8. Her father | was a hale and hearty man.
9. His cheeks were as brown | as oak leaves.
10. His house stood | on the side of a hill.
11. The noisy weathercocks | rattled and sang.
12. The good farmer lived | on his sunny farm.
13. Basil took the hoof | of the horse in his lap.
14. The trees of the forest | wrestle with the wind.
15. Evangeline's heart was filled with gladness.
16. Sturdy Basil, the blacksmith, | sat in the porch.
17. One of the oarsmen arose | in the front of the boat.
18. Garlands of Spanish moss hung | from the oaks.
19. King George of England | shall not drive you away.
20. The flowers in the garden were covered with dew.

2. Write one sentence about each of the following persons or things, and divide each sentence into its subject and predicate by means of a vertical line : —

The earth; an island; our schoolhouse; George Washington; September; railroads; the study of geography; rain; wool; pins.

To the Teacher. — The first thing necessary in learning to write English is to know where one sentence ends and another begins. This knowledge is sometimes called the *sentence sense*. To develop this sense it is a good plan occasionally to have pupils separate into sentences an unpunctuated paragraph that has been written on the blackboard. At first only simple sentences should be included.

CHAPTER V

ORDER OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

13. Notice the position of the subject in each of these sentences : —

1. *Father* has gone to Chicago.
2. Down went *the flag*.
3. Amidst the storm *they* sang.

The subject of a sentence usually comes first, as in sentence 1. But it is not uncommon to find the predicate first, as in sentence 2. Sometimes the subject is found between two parts of the predicate, as in sentence 3.

14. When the entire subject comes first, and the entire predicate last, the sentence is said to be arranged in the **natural order.** Any other arrangement is called the **transposed order.** The usual result of transposing the order is to make the predicate, or a part of the predicate, more emphatic by placing it first. In the sentence, "Thrice looked he at the city," the idea of *looking three times* is made more emphatic by transposing the order.

It is good practice to change transposed sentences to the natural order. Such practice gives skill in readily finding the subject and the predicate.

EXERCISE 5

Rearrange each of the following sentences so that the whole subject shall come first and the whole predicate last, and separate the subject and predicate by a vertical line: —

1. Over the hill the farm-boy goes.
2. Up the chimney roared the fire.
3. Beside a lake their cottage stood.
4. Above their heads towered a lofty mountain.
5. So passed the strong, heroic soul away.
6. A rare old plant is the ivy green.
7. All bloodless lay the untrodden snow.
8. Then shook the hills with thunder.
9. Next evening shone the crescent moon.
10. Then sounded the tread of marching feet.
11. On helm and harness rings the Saxon hammer.
12. Down came the soft and silent snow.
13. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.
14. Into the valley of death rode the six hundred.
15. Full many a gem of purest ray serene,
    The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear.

EXERCISE 6

1. Rearrange each of these sentences, beginning with the italicized part of the predicate. What order will they then illustrate? Which arrangement do you like better? Why?

1. The moist, still air was *sweet*.
2. The glow was *gone* from her cheek.
3. Her face was *bright* with smiles.
4. He lay there *dead* in the forest.

5. The fierce wind blew *all* day long.
6. I shall *never* see his dear face again.
7. A fisherman dwelt *here* with his wife and child.
8. They tramped *through* the woods from morning till night.
9. She cast *many* a backward glance.
10. She sat hugging Flossie *for* fully five minutes.
11. Something *suddenly* tugged at my line.
12. That bird is there *in* summer and winter.
13. Their nest is lined *with* softest moss.
14. Quebec surrendered to the English *five* days after the battle.
15. The lives of great and good men are *the* best of all stories.

2. Find five transposed sentences in your reader.

3. Write five sentences in the transposed order. Begin the sentences with such words as *down*, *up*, *away*, *long ago*, *then*, *back*.

EXERCISE 7

Change the following sentences to the natural order. Name the subject and the predicate of each.

1. One lingering look behind I cast.
2. Solemnly down the street came the priest.
3. Through an Alpine village passed a youth.
4. Then out spake brave Horatius.
5. Farther down was the well with its moss-grown bucket.
6. Pleasantly rose the sun on the village of Grand Pré.
7. In 1620 the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth.
8. Down swept the chill wind from the mountain peak.
9. On the lower seats around the arena sat the high-born and wealthy visitors.
10. Loosely swung in the idle air
    The empty sleeve of army blue.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is an idea? A word? 2. Define language. 3. What is meant by *good English?* 4. What is grammar? 5. What is a sentence? 6. Define subject and predicate. 7. Why do the words

a large black horse not form a sentence? 8. Why do the words *My father returned yesterday* form a sentence? 9. What is the usual order of the subject and predicate? 10. What is meant by the natural and the transposed order? Give an example of each.

CHAPTER VI

FOUR KINDS OF SENTENCES

15. All the sentences we have thus far studied have been alike in one respect at least; they were **simple statements.** They gave us information about some person or thing. But sentences are sometimes used for **other purposes** than giving information.

1. John Cabot was a great explorer.
2. Have you finished your lesson?
3. Keep off the grass.
4. How blue the sky looks!

If we examine the above sentences, we find that the first makes a **statement**, the second asks a **question**, the third expresses a **command**, and the fourth implies **strong feeling.**

Thus, we see that there are four different kinds of sentences according to their **use.**

16. DEFINITIONS. — **A Declarative Sentence is a sentence that makes a statement**; as, *The sun rises in the east.*

An Interrogative Sentence is a sentence that asks a question; as, *What are you doing?*

An Imperative Sentence is a sentence that expresses a command or an entreaty; as, *Don't give up the ship. Lead us not into temptation.*

An Exclamatory Sentence is a sentence that expresses strong feeling; as, *How beautiful is night!*

EXERCISE 8

Tell the kind of sentence, and notice how each sentence is punctuated (page 386): —

1. Paul Revere aroused the people to arms.
2. What a fine time we had last night!
3. George, begin to read on the fortieth page.
4. Write your lesson on ruled paper.
5. How beautiful those clouds are!
6. What causes the change of seasons?
7. How badly you have soiled your book!
8. Central America is composed of several republics.
9. How many fish did you catch?
10. Draw a picture of a steamboat.
11. How refreshing was the odor of the sea!
12. Last night the moon had a golden ring.
13. Think of your woods and orchards without birds!
14. Who wishes to take a walk with me?

DECLARATIVE SENTENCES

17. We have already learned much about **declarative sentences.** All the sentences in the first seven exercises of this book are declarative sentences because they make **statements** about some person or thing.

We have learned that the subject of a declarative sentence usually comes first; as, "Big trees grow in California." But we have also found that a part, or the whole, of the predicate sometimes comes first; as, "Down went the ship."

We know that such sentences as *Down went the ship* have the transposed order, and we have learned how to change them to the natural order.

This knowledge will help us in dealing with interrogative sentences.

CHAPTER VII

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

18. What kind of sentence is each of the following?

1. James *is* here.
2. *Is* James here?
3. Who *is* here?
4. James *has come.*
5. *Has* James *come?*
6. *Do* you *hear?*

A study of the above sentences will show the main differences between **declarative** and **interrogative** sentences.

(*a*) They differ in **thought.** The declarative sentence states a fact — gives information, as in 1 and 4; the interrogative sentence inquires about a fact — asks for information, as in 2, 3, 5, and 6.

(*b*) They differ in **form.** In the declarative sentence the subject usually comes first, as in 1 and 4. In the interrogative sentence either the whole or a part of the predicate usually comes first, as in 2, 5, and 6. In a few interrogative sentences the subject is placed first, as in 3.

19. A declarative sentence may be made interrogative by beginning the sentence with the predicate, or a part of the predicate, as in 2, 5, and 6. The word *do* (*does*, *did*) is often used in asking questions; as in 6, where the predicate is *do hear.*

EXERCISE 9

Change each of the following sentences to the interrogative form by beginning with the whole or a part of the predicate, or with *do* (*does*, *did*).

EXAMPLE: Arbor Day originated in Nebraska.

Did Arbor Day originate in Nebraska?

1. De Soto discovered the Mississippi River.
2. The Andes Mountains are in South America.

3. The first school in Chicago was opened in 1816.
4. Napoleon was defeated at Waterloo.
5. Patrick Henry was an eloquent speaker.
6. Benedict Arnold betrayed his country.
7. Lookout Mountain is near Chattanooga.
8. General Bolivar is called "the Washington of South America."
9. The St. Johns River drains nearly the whole of Florida.
10. Henry W. Longfellow was the author of "The Village Blacksmith."
11. The fierce wind blew all day long.
12. Their nest is lined with fleecy wool.
13. The glow had gone from her cheek.
14. The lives of the great are the best of sermons.
15. The rain beat against the windows from morning till night.

20. Questions are often introduced by special interrogative words such as *who*, *which*, *what*, *how*, *why*, *when*, *where*.

EXERCISE 10

1. Form an interrogative sentence from each sentence in the last exercise by using one of the above interrogative words, and omitting any words that are not needed.

EXAMPLE: Who discovered the Mississippi River?

2. Ask questions, using each of the following words as a subject: —

Mary, James, chair, desk, river, map, king, picture, knife, sun, sheet, window, money, Boston.

3. Ask questions, using the words *do*, *does*, *did*, *has*, *have*, *will*, *shall*, *can*, *must*.

21. To find the subject and the predicate of an interrogative sentence, change it to the declarative form, so that the subject will come first.

EXERCISE 11

Change the following interrogative sentences to the declarative form, and separate the subject and predicate by a vertical line.

EXAMPLE: Where do oranges grow in abundance?

Oranges | do grow in abundance where?

1. Shall we start on our journey to-morrow?
2. Have you told him about the accident?
3. When will the procession pass your house?
4. Can you not hear that thunder?
5. Was the foreman of the factory hurt?
6. By whom was the St. Lawrence River discovered?
7. Which of these houses has Mr. Cook rented?
8. Was Washington a great reader in his boyhood?
9. How many bones does the human body contain?
10. Where was the first battle of the Revolutionary War fought?

CHAPTER VIII

IMPERATIVE SENTENCES

22. Imperative sentences are unlike the other kinds of sentences which we have thus far studied, and yet we hear and use such sentences almost every hour. Such familiar expressions as "Go away"; "Light the lamp"; "Shut the door," are imperative sentences. If your teacher says to you, "Fold your paper," she commands *you* to do something. The predicate is, *fold your paper.* The subject is *you* (understood).

1. Think of me.
2. You read next.
3. Do not consent.
4. Honor thy father.
5. Forgive us our debts.
6. Consent thou not.

23. **Imperative** sentences are unlike **declarative** sentences in the following respects.

(*a*) In **thought.** They do not give information nor ask for information, but express a command, or an entreaty.

(*b*) In **form.** The subject is *you* or *thou*, and since its absence can lead to no mistake, it is commonly omitted.

24. When the subject is expressed (as in sentence 6), it is usually placed after the first word of the predicate. In familiar speech, however, the subject is sometimes placed first, as in sentence 2.

25. When the predicate contains the word *not*, the word *do* is commonly used and is placed first, as in sentence 3. In formal language the *do* is sometimes omitted, as in 6.

EXERCISE 12

Fill each blank with a word that expresses a command:—

1. —— the dishes.
2. —— to the store.
3. —— the bell.
4. —— the scissors.
5. —— your lesson.
6. —— the exercise.
7. —— your hat.
8. —— the bed.
9. —— the window.
10. —— me a pin.
11. —— my hat.
12. —— it again.
13. —— less noise.
14. —— your coat.
15. —— my pencil.
16. —— a match.
17. —— away.
18. —— quiet.
19. —— some coal.
20. —— your shoes.
21. —— the dog.
22. —— the horse.
23. —— aside your books.
24. —— a straight line.
25. —— my knife.
26. Forward ——.

What is the subject of each sentence in the above exercise?

EXERCISE 13

Separate the subject and the predicate of each of th following sentences by a vertical line.

EXAMPLE: *Return at five o'clock.* The subject of the sentence i *you* understood; the predicate is *return at five o'clock.* Supplying th subject we divide the sentence thus: —

(You) | return at five o'clock.

1. Stop that horse.
2. Go to school this minute.
3. Honor your country's flag.
4. Aim at perfection in everything.
5. Do not look a gift horse in the mouth.
6. Don't give up the ship.
7. Think not upon this fault.
8. Now tell me all about the war.
9. Heap high the golden corn.
10. Do not rob Peter to pay Paul.
11. Overcome evil with good.
12. Judge not according to appearance.
13. Be not wise in your own conceits.
14. Cut your coat according to your cloth.

CHAPTER IX

EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES

26. Examine the following sentences: —

1. How fine your new coat looks!
2. What a terrible fire this is!

These sentences are not statements, nor questions, nor commands. They are pure **exclamatory** sentences. Such sentences are usually introduced by *how* or *what*, and the subject and predicate often have the transposed order.

Besides the sentences just described, which are exclamatory in **form**, as well as in **sense**, there are other sentences that are exclamatory in sense, but not in form.

27. Almost any **sentence** may be made exclamatory if uttered with sufficient feeling.

1. We are lost!
2. What do you mean!
3. Stop that thief!
4. How beautiful is night!

So far as **form** is concerned the first of the above sentences is declarative, the second is interrogative, and the third is imperative, and yet each is considered exclamatory, as is shown by the **punctuation** (page 387).

EXERCISE 14

Select the declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences: —

1. How small these apples are!
2. Kill for me a deer with antlers.
3. Insects visit flowers in search of honey.
4. Oases furnish resting places for travelers.
5. Magnets draw iron and steel toward them.
6. What a delicious flavor these peaches have!
7. Have you learned your geography lesson?
8. The voice of Jason aroused the dozing sailors.
9. What cozy nooks the honey bees do spy out!
10. The most noted marble quarries are near Rutland, Vermont.
11. Harvard College was founded at Cambridge in 1636.
12. From what country is the best cinnamon imported?
13. Begin every sentence with a capital letter.
14. Did you hear the alarm of fire about twelve o'clock?

EXERCISE 15

1. Change the transposed sentences in the above exercise to the declarative form. Give the subject and predicate of each sentence.
2. Write five interrogative sentences.
3. Write five imperative sentences.
4. Write five exclamatory sentences.

CHAPTER X

VOCATIVES

28. In each of the following sentences tell (1) the kind of sentence, (2) the subject and the predicate, (3) find a word that does not belong to either subject or predicate.

1. Albert, you are mistaken.
2. Are you honest, Frank?
3. Now, boys, take your books.
4. Come back, Horatius!

In the above sentences the words *Albert*, *Frank*, *boys*, *Horatius*, are used to call the attention of the **person spoken to**, or addressed. They are **not subjects**, but are used **independently**. If they are omitted, the meaning of the sentence is not changed. The name of the person or thing addressed is called a **vocative**. Such a word may be used in any kind of sentence that is directly addressed to another person, but is more common in imperative sentences.

Vocative means **calling**. A vocative is a word used in calling a person or thing.

29. DEFINITION. — **A vocative is a word used independently as the name of the person or thing addressed**, as, Help me, *Cassius!*

30. A vocative (with its modifiers) should be set off from the rest of the sentence by a comma, as in 1, 2, and 4, or by two commas, as in 3.

A vocative is sometimes called a *vocative nominative*, or a *nominative of direct address*.

EXERCISE 16

1. Tell the subject and predicate of each sentence and name the vocative: —

1. Father, may I go to the meeting?
2. Take your own time, Annie.

3. Come into the garden, Maud.
4. I have found the lost book, George.
5. My friend, you have done me a great kindness.
6. Do your very best, my son, every day of your life.
7. O stay, sweet-warbling wood lark, stay.
8. You live, sir, in these dales, a quiet life.
9. Lord of the universe, shield us and guide us.
10. Bird of the broad and sweeping wing,
    Thy home is high in heaven.
11. My Country! 'tis of thee,
    Sweet Land of liberty,
        Of thee I sing.
12. Fair Harvard, thy sons to thy jubilee throng.
13. Milton, thou should'st be living at this hour.
14. Break, break, break,
    At the foot of thy crags, O sea!
15. To me, fair friend, you never can be old.
16. Come, cheerful day, thou art part of my life.
17. Protect us by thy might, Great God, our King.
18. Our fathers' God, to Thee,
    Author of Liberty,
        To Thee we sing.

2. Find five vocative words in your reader.
3. Write five sentences, each containing a vocative.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Name four kinds of sentences classified according to their use. 2. Define and give an example of each kind. 3. How do interrogative sentences differ from declarative (*a*) in thought? (*b*) in form? 4. How may a declarative sentence be made interrogative in form? Give an example. 5. How does an imperative sentence differ from other kinds (*a*) in thought? (*b*) in form? 6. Give an example of an imperative sentence with *not*. 7. Explain the punctuation of each kind of sentence. 8. What is the subject of the sentence, *James, open the window?* 9. How is the word *James* used? 10. What are words used in this way called? 11. How are they punctuated?

CHAPTER XI

PARTS OF SPEECH — NOUNS

31. Words are divided into classes according to their different uses in sentences.

George soon caught a fine trout.

In this sentence, *George* is used as the subject; *caught* tells or asserts something about George; *trout* names what George caught; *soon* shows the time of the action; *fine* shows what kind of trout he caught.

One short sentence is enough to show that words are not all used alike; and yet the number of distinct uses is not large. When we consider how many words our language contains, it is surprising that we can put them all into a few classes.

32. According to their uses in sentences, words are divided into eight classes, called Parts of Speech.

NOUNS

33. What words in the following sentences are **names** of persons? Names of places? Names of things?

1. Philadelphia was founded by William Penn. 2. The men who flocked to California in 1849 were miners. 3. When the arrows of the Indians began to fall around Miles Standish and his men, they ran to the boat for their guns. 4. Albany is the capital of the state of New York. 5. The governor resides in the executive mansion. 6. The nation is made up of states and territories. 7. The men left the boat on the river.

Words that are used as **names** are called **nouns.** The word *noun* means **name.**

EXERCISE 17

Give orally five names of persons, places, or things under each of the following heads : —

1. Persons in this room. 2. States of the Union. 3. Foreign countries. 4. American cities. 5. Men of whom you have read. 6. Things in this room. 7. Things out of doors. 8. Parts of a clock. 9. Parts of a chair. 10. Parts of a wagon. 11. Kinds of animals. 12. Kinds of birds.

34. DEFINITION. — **A noun is a word used as the name of a person, place, or thing** ; as, *Columbus* sailed from *Palos* with three *ships*.

35. The word **thing** includes: (1) All objects that we can perceive by the bodily senses; that is, all objects that we can see, hear, taste, touch, or smell; (2) all objects that we can **think about**, even if we cannot perceive them by the senses (§§ 190–191).

EXERCISE 18

Find the nouns in the sentences below. Does the noun name a thing which we can see, hear, taste, touch (feel), or smell? Does it name a thing which we can only think of?

1. That is a beautiful house.
2. The din of the battle was terrible.
3. A gentle breeze was blowing.
4. The fragrance of these flowers is delightful.
5. The strength of the gorilla is very great.
6. The air resounded with the songs of the birds.
7. The clatter of the cars annoyed him.
8. The sleigh bells were ringing.
9. John can learn his lessons in an hour.
10. Kindness to animals shows a refined mind.
11. Good health is better than wealth.

EXERCISE 19

Pick out the nouns in the following sentences; tell whether each noun is the name of a person, place, or thing.

1. There the Pilgrims found a safe harbor for ships, and some brooks from which they got fresh water.
2. The Indians gave the war whoop, a yell which the Englishmen had never heard before.
3. As Miles Standish was several years older than Priscilla, and a rough soldier, he asked his friend John Alden to try to secure Priscilla for him.
4. The Indians thought that men who sailed in big canoes, and discharged guns that blazed and smoked and made a noise like thunder and knocked the trees down, must have some mysterious power.
5. Robert Fulton built his first steamboat on the river Seine, near Paris, but the craft broke from the weight of her machinery.
6. About 1850 Cyrus W. Field, of New York, got the notion that a telegraph could be laid across the Atlantic Ocean.
7. Louisville, the largest city of Kentucky, is on the Ohio River, one hundred miles below Cincinnati.
8. Edgar A. Poe, the distinguished poet, died in Baltimore.

SINGULAR AND PLURAL NOUNS

36. When a noun means **one** person or thing, it is called a **singular** noun; as, *girl*, *branch*. When a noun means **more than one**, it is called a **plural** noun; as, *girls*, *branches*.

Most plural nouns are formed from singular nouns by adding *s* or *es*.

1. Give the plural forms of the following nouns: —

Goat, dream, star, prayer, dish, voice, bench, box, monkey, roof, eye, bush, church.

2. Find the plural nouns in Exercises 18 and 19.

3. Find the singular nouns in Exercise 13 and give the plural of each one.

CHAPTER XII

COMMON AND PROPER NOUNS

37. Find the nouns in the following sentences:—

Columbus was a courageous man.
Atlanta is the largest city in Georgia.

Here the noun *Columbus* refers to a particular person, but the noun *man* might be applied to any other man as well as to Columbus. We call *Columbus* a **proper noun** and *man* a **common noun.**

In the same way the word *city* is a common noun because it is a name common to London, Paris, Berlin, New York, Atlanta, and all other cities in the world. But the word *Atlanta* is a proper noun because it is the name of a particular city.

The word *proper* means **one's own.** Think of the word *property*, meaning that which belongs to a particular person. A proper name belongs to a **particular** person, place, or thing, but a common name may be applied to any one of a **class.**

38. A common noun usually applies to a large number, sometimes to millions of persons, places, or things; as, *man*, *plant*, *bird*, *stone*, *dog*. All *birds*, for example, are not exactly alike, but they are so much alike that one name applies to them all. Such a group of persons or things is called a **class.** Common nouns are class nouns.

39. DEFINITIONS. — **A Proper Noun is the name of a particular person, place, or thing**; as, *George*, *Chicago*, *April*.

A Common Noun is the name of any one of a class of persons, places, or things; as, *boy*, *city*, *month*.

EXERCISE 20

1. Tell to what class each of these proper names belongs; that is, give the common noun that corresponds to each; as, *Cuba, island.*

Cuba, Andes, Alabama, Ontario, November, Baltimore, Edward VII, Thursday, Merrimac, The Revolution. New York Tribune, Robert E. Lee, France, Longfellow.

2. Give a proper noun corresponding to each of these common or class nouns: —

Grocer, carpenter, mayor, emperor, inventor, soldier, street, peninsula, ship, lake, teacher, school, cape, church, book, fort, isthmus, colony, bay, gulf, mountain, general, poet, historian, firm, lecturer, event, society.

EXERCISE 21

Pick out the nouns in the following sentences; tell whether each is a common or a proper noun, and give a reason.

EXAMPLE: The word *city* is a common noun because it applies to any one of a class. *Toledo* is a proper noun because it is the name of a particular city.

1. A city has paved streets. 2. Did you ever visit Toledo? 3. Civilized men live in houses. 4. Many Indians live in wigwams. 5. What country is south of the United States? 6. The cactus grows in Mexico. 7. An ocean is a large body of salt water. 8. East of the United States is the Atlantic Ocean. 9. Which boy broke the glass? 10. It was George Denny, of the seventh grade. 11. What is a cape? 12. Where is Cape Horn? 13. Draw a map of South America. 14. Find London on the map of England. 15. The telegraph was invented by Samuel F. B. Morse. 16. Minneapolis is about seven miles from St. Paul. 17. Pheasants are found in warm and temperate parts of Asia. 18. Do you read *The Herald?* 19. Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence. 20. I have just finished reading Dickens's "A Child's History of England."

What nouns in the above sentences begin with capital letters? Give a reason.

40. Begin every proper noun with a capital letter.

41. When a proper noun consists of **two or more** words regarded as forming one name, each important word begins with a capital letter; as, Long Island, Cape Cod, Ohio River, Niagara Falls, Gulf of Mexico, Isthmus of Panama, Cape of Good Hope, Nyack-on-the-Hudson.[1]

EXERCISE 22

1. Write the words called for under the first five heads of Exercise 17.

2. Pick out the nouns in Exercise 19; tell whether each noun is common or proper, and give a reason.

EXERCISE 23

Write ten sentences about *Our City* (town or village) in answer to these questions: —

1. In what city, town, or village do you live? 2. In what county is it situated? 3. In what state? 4. Near what river, lake, bay, or canal is it located? 5. What is the nearest large city? 6. What railroad passes through your city or village, or near it? 7. What is one of the important streets called? 8. What is the name of a hotel? 9. What is the name of a church? 10. What school do you attend?

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by parts of speech? 2. How can we decide to which class a word belongs? 3. What is a noun? 4. Mention a noun used as the name of a person. A place. A thing. 5. Give the name (*a*) of a thing you can see, (*b*) of a thing you can hear but not see, (*c*) of a thing you can simply think of. 6. What does the word *noun* mean? 7. What is a singular noun? A plural noun? 8. How are most plural nouns formed? 9. What is a proper noun? 10. What does the word *proper* mean? 11. What is a common noun? 12. Why are common nouns called class nouns?

[1] See also note, page 386.

CHAPTER XIII

PRONOUNS

42. In the following sentences which words refer to *birds* without naming them? What word refers to *thread* without naming it?

Some birds sew leaves together for *their* nests. *They* use thread *which* they make from cotton. *They* use *their* bills for needles.

The words *they* and *their* are used in place of the noun *birds*, and save the necessity of repeating that word over and over. In like manner, the word *which* is used in place of the noun *thread*. Such words are called **pronouns.** The word *pronoun* means **instead of a noun.**

43. DEFINITION. — **A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun;** as, Mercury carried messages for *his* father.

44. The usefulness of pronouns is best seen when we try to do without them. If we had no pronouns, we could not avoid **awkward repetitions** like these: —

John thought John had lost John's money.

By using pronouns, we improve the sentence, thus: —

John thought he had lost his money.

45. The most important pronouns are: *I*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *we*, *they*, *me*, *him*, *her*, *us*, *them*, *my*, *your*, *his*, *our*, *their*, *who*, *whom*, *which*, *what*, *that*.

EXERCISE 24

Put pronouns in the place of nouns wherever you can in these sentences: —

1. Daniel Boone lived alone until Daniel Boone's brother returned.
2. Seals are usually killed when the seals are about four years old.

3. The sea otter resembles the beaver in size and shape, but the sea otter's head is rounder. 4. The hunter soon saw the hunter's mistake. 5. Franklin and Franklin's playmates used to fish for minnows in a mill pond. 6. When George Washington was eleven years old George Washington's father died, but George Washington's mother took great pains to bring George Washington up with manly ideas. 7. I have not seen John and Charles since I met John and Charles at your house.

EXERCISE 25

Fill the blanks with pronouns: —

1. When the man passed, the dogs barked at ——.
2. Arthur whistled for —— dog, but —— did not come.
3. The schoolhouse had a large tree in front of ——.
4. Effie has been visiting a long time at —— aunt's.
5. The teacher asked —— pupils to prepare —— lessons.
6. Some men mind everybody's business but —— own.
7. If James wants the book, let —— have ——.

EXERCISE 26

An old man at the point of death called his sons around him to give them some parting advice. He ordered his servants to bring in a bundle of sticks, and said to his eldest son, "Break it." The son strained and strained, but was unable to break the bundle. The other sons also tried, but could not do it. "Untie the bundle," said the father, "and each of you take a stick." When they had done so, he called to them, "Now try it," and each stick was easily broken.

The above selection is called a **paragraph.**

DEFINITION. — **A series of sentences relating to one topic is called a Paragraph.**

EXERCISE 27

Write a composition about *Our Schoolhouse*, touching on the following points: —

1. Location. 2. Size. 3. Appearance. 4. Material. 5. Number of stories. 6. Entrances. 7. Halls. 8. Stairways. 9. Number of rooms. 10. Method of heating.

CHAPTER XIV

MODIFIERS

46. The subject of a sentence may consist of **one word** or of **several words.** The same is true of the predicate.

Fire | burns.
A cheerful fire | burns brightly in the grate.

The word *cheerful*, in the second sentence, shows **what kind** of fire is referred to. It adds to the meaning of the word *fire*. In the same way the word *brightly* shows in **what manner** the fire burns, and thus adds to the meaning of the word *burns*. The group of words *in the grate* shows **where** the fire burns, and makes the meaning of *burns* still more complete.

47. A word or a group of words that adds to the meaning of another is called a **modifier.**

48. To modify means to **change.** Each of the modifiers *cheerful*, *brightly*, and *in the grate* changes the meaning of the word it modifies by making the meaning of the word more complete.

49. DEFINITION. — **A modifier is a word or group of words that adds to the meaning of another word**; as, *Wild* bees hummed *about the spot.*

EXERCISE 28

1. Find the modifiers in the following sentences : —

1. The little girl had a beautiful doll.
2. The two children walked slowly to school.
3. The ugly dog then ran swiftly away.
4. Four black horses ran down the street.
5. I stood on the bridge at midnight.
6. We crossed a broad and shallow river.

CHAPTER XV

ADJECTIVES

50. We have found that everything has a name and that every **name** is a **noun**. But things may have the same name and belong to the same class, and yet not be exactly alike.

In the sentence, "George owns a dog," the noun *dog* shows that the thing which George owns is not a horse, nor a cat, nor anything but a dog. But the simple **name** does not show **what kind** of dog is spoken of. It may be large or small, black or white, gentle or savage. We evidently need words that will make the meaning of the simple name more definite; as, —

red sour juicy large many delicious ripe green	cherries	big strong handsome intelligent four several kind jolly	men

51. A word used with a noun or pronoun to make the meaning more definite is called an **adjective**. The word *adjective* means **added to.**

52. DEFINITION. — **An adjective is a word used to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun**; as, A *modest* violet grew in a *shady* bed.

53. An adjective may (1) *describe* by showing **what kind**; as, *pure* water; or (2) *limit* by showing **which one, how much,** or **how many**; as, *this* book, *much* money, *six* apples.

EXERCISE 29

In the following sentences, (1) name each adjective, (2) tell which word the adjective modifies, and (3) in what way.

EXAMPLE: *Rich* is an adjective modifying *men;* it shows what kind. *Thirty* is an adjective modifying *days;* it shows how many. *That* is an adjective modifying *book;* it shows which one.

1. Many rich men live in large houses.
2. Thirty days has September.
3. That book belongs on this shelf.
4. Pennsylvania produces much coal.
5. Turn to the forty-third page.
6. The new schoolhouse has sixteen rooms.
7. The sailors escaped in two small boats.
8. The burglar entered by the back door.
9. The first telegraph line was built in 1844.

EXERCISE 30

1. Use each of the following adjectives correctly in sentences : —

EXAMPLE : This is *pleasant* weather.

Pleasant, happy, that, first, small, sad, industrious, rolling, every, no, lazy, blue, twinkling, soft, polite, square, hard, swift, smooth.

2. Use a suitable adjective with each of the following nouns : —

EXAMPLE : — Mr. Smith lives in a *brown* house.

House, street, school, river, lake, sun, hand, children, birthday, clouds, bread, glass, month, chalk, chapter, leaves, knife, lead, coal.

3. After each of the following adjectives place another adjective with an *opposite* meaning : —

EXAMPLE: *Long; short.*

Long, large, cheap, slow, careless, late, welcome, rich, this, interesting, deep, cheerful, wide, honest, cruel, courageous, dull, old, sweet, little, those, noisy, cold, handsome, harmless, fresh, strong, healthy.

EXERCISE 31

From the following notes write a composition of at least fifteen sentences about *Our School Yard*. Try to use an adjective in each sentence.

1. Location. 2. Size. 3. Entrances. 4. Fences. 5. Walks. 6. Trees. 7. Grass. 8. Flowers. 9. Playground. 10. Games.

CHAPTER XVI

THE TWO ARTICLES

54. Two adjectives deserve special attention: —

1. *An* orange is round.
2. *The* horse is ready.

What is round? Does it mean that a **particular** orange, or that **any** orange, is round? *What* is ready? Does it mean that a **particular** horse is ready, or simply **some** horse?

What noun does *an* modify? What noun does *the* modify? What do we call words that modify nouns? To what class of words do *an* and *the* belong?

The words *an* (or *a*) and *the* are **adjectives**, because they modify the meaning of nouns, but they are so important that they have been given a name by themselves, and are called **articles.**

55. *The* is used to point out one or more definite things of a class, and is called the **definite article**; as, *the* front door; *the* boys on *the* back seats.

56. *An* (or *a*) is used to denote any one of a class of objects, and is called the **indefinite article**; as, *an* elephant, *a* room.

57. The form *an* is used before words beginning with a vowel sound (*a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *u*) or silent *h*: as, *an* oak; *an* honest man. In other positions, the form *an* drops *n* and becomes *a*; as, *a* star, *a* year, *a* world. Many good writers use *an* before *h* when the accent is not on the first syllable; as, "*an* habit'ual truant." Words beginning with a vowel, but pronounced as if they began with *y*, take *a* instead of *an*; as, *a* useful book, *a* European journey.

An (or *a*) is used with nouns denoting **one**; as, *an* inch, *a* star. *The* is used with nouns denoting **one** or **more than one**; as, *the* boy; *the* boys.

EXERCISE 32

Use *an* or *a* with the following words: —

Occupation, academy, hornet, hour, apostle, group, uniform, history, historical study, home, university, umpire, idol, example, unjust law, useful book, evening, autumn, union, inch, hoe, Irishman, horn, honor, European, humorous story, ear, year, honest man.

EXERCISE 33

Fill the blanks with *a*, *an*, or *the*. Tell why each form is used.

1. Jane has —— new hat. 2. What did —— hat cost? 3. —— sun has set. 4. He came to —— back door. 5. The soldier lost —— arm in battle. 6. It was —— hopeless case. 7. —— bird in —— hand is worth two in —— bush. 8. Tom saw —— snake in —— garden. 9. Take much exercise in —— open air. 10. Florence is —— good scholar; in fact, she is —— best in her class. 11. Please pass —— butter. 12. Will you have —— orange? 13. Go to —— store and get —— pound of raisins. 14. We went into —— store in Chicago. 15. Charley, harness —— horse. 16. I want to buy —— good horse. 17. I will take —— umbrella; it looks like —— shower. 18. Set back —— clock; it is —— hour too fast. 19. He has —— store in —— busiest part of —— city. 20. —— servant broke —— saucer, but it was —— first dish she had broken.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is a pronoun? Give an example. 2. Show how pronouns are useful. 3. What does the word *pronoun* mean? 4. Name ten pronouns. 5. What is a modifier? Give an example. 6. What does the word *modify* mean? 7. In the sentence, *The panting cattle stood in the river*, what are the modifiers? 8. What is an adjective? 9. What does the word mean? 10. Show why adjectives are needed. 11. What does an adjective do? 12. How does an adjective make the meaning of a noun more definite? 13. Mention three ways in which this may be done. 14. Use in a sentence an adjective that shows *what kind;* that shows *which one;* that shows *how many.* 15. Name two kinds of articles. Give examples of each. 16. When is the form *a* used instead of *an?* 17. Use the proper form of the indefinite article before the words *apple, table, umbrella, unit, hand, hour, yoke, oak, ear, year.*

CHAPTER XVII

VERBS

58. We have learned that every sentence consists of a subject and predicate.

In the sentence, "Flowers bloom," the noun *flowers* names the things about which the assertion is made, and *bloom* makes the assertion.

No matter how many words we may join together, **we cannot make a sentence without a word that tells or asserts** something about the person or thing called the subject.

1. Cats see in the dark.
2. The withered leaves fall.
3. Toads have bright eyes.
4. The sailor climbs the mast.

Give the subject and predicate of each of the above sentences. What word in each sentence tells or asserts something about the subject? Words like *see, fall, have, climb*, that make assertions, are called **verbs.**

59. That about which the assertion is made must be a **noun** or something equivalent to a noun. The asserting part is always a **verb.** The most important classes of words, then, are nouns or pronouns and verbs. No assertion can be made or sentence formed without a verb. *Verb* means **word.** The verb is the most important word of a sentence.

60. DEFINITION. — **A verb is a word used to tell or assert something about some person, place, or thing;** as, A raindrop *fell* into the sea.

61. Most verbs assert *action*, but a few assert *being* or *state*.

He *walked* two miles. (action)
There *are* lions in Africa. (being)
My lady *sleeps*. (state)

EXERCISE 34

Name each verb in the following sentences: —

1. They hung a lantern in the church tower.
2. Paul Revere saw the lantern.
3. He carried the news to the people.
4. He rode through the country.
5. His horse went like the wind.
6. The sparks flew from under his hoofs.
7. Revere crossed the bridge into Medford.
8. He heard the barking of the farmer's dog.
9. Finally he galloped into Lexington.
10. At two o'clock he reached Concord.
11. A laborer fell from a long ladder.
12. You live a very quiet life.
13. They fought like brave men.
14. They went round and round the field.
15. They elected George Washington President.
16. I met two boys on the road.
17. The boy told me the way to the village.
18. The box holds a dozen pencils.

CHAPTER XVIII

VERB–PHRASES

62. A verb often consists of two or more words: as, —

1. I *have learned* my lesson.
2. The people *were rushing* by.
3. Henry *has been thrown* from his horse.

In sentence 1, the assertion is made by the words *have learned;* in sentence 2, by *were rushing;* in sentence 3, by *has been thrown.* Such groups of words are called **verb-phrases.**

63. DEFINITION. — **A verb-phrase is a group of two or more words used as one verb**; as, My brother *has come.*

64. The parts of a verb-phrase may be separated by other words; as, —

The train *will* soon *arrive.* I *have* often *seen* your cousin.

65. The forms *be* (*am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, etc.), *shall*, *will*, *have*, *had*, *do*, *did*, *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*, are often used in verb-phrases and are then called **auxiliary verbs.** Auxiliary means **helping.** These words help the other part of the verb-phrase to make the assertion.

EXERCISE 35

1. Pick out the verb-phrases in these sentences: —

1. The children were playing on the seashore. 2. I will now write a letter. 3. I do not like his looks. 4. Do you hear your father? 5. Lost time is never found again. 6. Have you ever read "Robinson Crusoe"? 7. Do you like oranges? 8. Where is Mr. Smith boarding? 9. Have you never seen an elephant? 10. The boy has been playing with me. 11. When does your birthday come?

2. Find ten verb-phrases in your reader.

CHAPTER XIX

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS

66. Some verbs are complete in themselves and some require another word in order to make a complete statement or assertion. In such sentences as, "The sun shines," "The clock ticks," the verb makes a complete statement about the subject. But in such sentences as, "The farmer planted trees," "Fred threw the ball," the verb alone does not make a complete statement. Another word is needed to show what receives the action expressed by the verb. If we heard a person say, "Charles found," we should naturally ask "Found *what?*"

1. The snow melts.
2. His hand trembles.
3. The light disappeared.
4. Cats catch mice.
5. Charles found a key.
6. I invited him.

Name the verb in each sentence and the subject of each verb. In which sentences does the verb alone make a complete assertion about the subject? In which sentences does the verb alone leave the statement incomplete?

Verbs like *catch*, *found*, *invited*, which require another word to show the person or thing that receives the action, are called **transitive verbs.**

67. A word used to complete the meaning of a transitive verb is called its **object.** The nouns *mice* and *key* and the pronoun *him* are objects. The object of a transitive verb is usually a noun or a pronoun.

68. DEFINITIONS. — **A Transitive Verb is a verb that requires an object to complete its meaning**; as, Indians *attacked* the town.

An Intransitive Verb is a verb that does not require an object to complete its meaning; as, The wind *blows.*

1. The word *transitive* means **passing over.** In the sentence, *Cats catch mice*, the act of catching does not end with the subject but **passes over** to something entirely distinct from the subject. There are **two** things involved, the subject *cats* and the object *mice.* In such sentences the subject is the **doer** of the action and the object is the **receiver** of the action.

2. In the sentence, *The tree grows*, the act of growing does not affect anything except the *tree.* The action begins and ends with the subject. Only **one** thing is involved, the subject *tree.*

69. To find the object of a transitive verb ask such questions as, *Catch what? Invited whom?*

EXERCISE 36

Tell whether each verb in these sentences is transitive or intransitive. If the verb is transitive, find its object.

1. The troops retired slowly.
2. The Eskimos make houses of snow and ice.
3. I looked down from my window.
4. Stanley explored the continent of Africa.
5. The child fell asleep.
6. Fleming awoke at six o'clock.
7. Benjamin Franklin invented stoves.
8. Her eyes twinkled like a star.
9. Pizarro, a Spanish adventurer, conquered Peru.
10. The traveler departed without delay.
11. Robert L. Stevenson died in the Samoan Islands.
12. They expected you and me.
13. The lilacs bloomed in the dooryard.
14. James Fenimore Cooper wrote Indian stories.
15. The poet Whittier once taught school.
16. Do not trouble him.
17. They want him and me.
18. Where did you buy that hat?
19. Put away your books.
20. Across the lonely beach we flit.

CHAPTER XX

VERBS THAT ARE TRANSITIVE OR INTRANSITIVE

70. Many verbs are **transitive** or **intransitive** according to their **use** in particular sentences.

71. Verbs naturally transitive may be used intransitively: —

(*a*) When the object is so general that it is not thought of: —

TRANSITIVE	INTRANSITIVE
I *see* the ship.	A blind man does not *see*.
He *writes* good letters.	He *writes* well.
She *swept* the room.	The procession *swept* by.

(*b*) When the object if expressed would be a pronoun referring to the subject; as, The children *hid* = hid *themselves*.

TRANSITIVE	INTRANSITIVE
We *break* the ice.	The waves *break* on the shore.
He *moves* the table.	The train *moves* slowly.
Farmers *spread* hay.	The flames *spread* rapidly.
He *slammed* the door.	The door *slammed*.
They *broke* up the meeting.	The meeting *broke* up.
Stop that thief.	The train *stops* here.
He *keeps* a cow.	He *keeps* very quiet.

(*c*) Verbs naturally intransitive are sometimes used transitively, usually in a **causative** sense; as, The sun melts the snow (= *causes* the snow to melt).

TRANSITIVE	INTRANSITIVE
The sun *melts* the snow.	The snow *melts*.
He *boils* the water.	The water *boils*.
John *runs* an engine.	The boy *runs* to school.
They *floated* the raft.	The raft *floats*.
They *sink* the ship.	The ship *sinks*.
He *walks* the horse.	The horse *walks*.

EXERCISE 37

Use the following verbs both transitively and intransitively: —

EXAMPLE: He broke the window. The rope broke.
I cut my finger. The knife cuts well.

Shake, spread, blow, increase, freeze, pass, grow, rest, hang, steal, hide, continue, hurt, open, keep, speak, leave, reach, meet, wear, pay.

CHAPTER XXI

COMPLEMENTS

72. We have found that a **transitive** verb cannot make a complete assertion unless the receiver of the action is named. If we hear the words, "The hunter killed," we ask, "Killed *what?*" The sense is not complete without some word like *deer* to name the person or thing that receives the action. Any word that is necessary to complete or fill out the meaning of a verb is called a **complement**, meaning **that which completes.**

The object of a transitive verb is often called an *object complement.* The complement of an intransitive verb is often called an *attribute complement.*

73. Many intransitive verbs make complete sense by themselves without the help of any other word or words; as, Trees grow. Winds blow. The baby sleeps.

74. A few intransitive verbs do not make sense unless followed by a complement.

He *is* rich.	They *became* sailors.
You *look* happy.	He *seems* sad.

The verbs *is*, *look*, *became*, and *seems* do not by themselves make a complete assertion or predication. The words *rich*, *happy*, *sailors*, and *sad* are **complements**, because they complete the assertion.

75. A verb, whether transitive or intransitive, that requires a word or words to complete its meaning is called **a verb of incomplete predication.**

76. The most important of these verbs that require complements is *be* (*am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, etc.).

77. The verb *be* is called the **copula**, because it *couples*, or connects its complement with the subject. In the sentence, "The earth is round," *is* expresses no definite meaning, but serves merely to couple the adjective *round* to the subject *earth*.

78. A few other verbs are used like *be* as copulas, and for this reason are called **copulative verbs.** The most common are: *appear*, *become*, *feel*, *grow*, *look*, *remain*, *seem*, *smell*, *sound*, *taste*.

79. A copulative verb, when used as such, never takes an object.

80. DEFINITIONS. — **A Verb of Incomplete Predication is a verb that requires the addition of one or more words to complete the predicate**; as, I *saw a balloon;* Roosevelt *became President.*

A Complement is the word or words needed to complete the meaning of a verb of incomplete predication.

EXERCISE 38

Study the following expressions and decide which verbs make complete predications. Supply suitable complements where needed.

EXAMPLE: The newsboy sells. The verb *sells* does not make a complete predication. By supplying a complement, *papers*, we make the assertion complete.

1. The horse is.
2. Do not touch.
3. Tadpoles become.
4. My head aches.
5. The fisherman caught.
6. They disappeared.

7. The bird died.
8. You seem.
9. I have found.
10. The sky grew.
11. Sugar tastes.
12. McKinley became.
13. Will you have?
14. Glass feels.
15. Why do you trouble?
16. My hand trembles.
17. Your lamp smokes.
18. This wheel rattles.
19. Poor boys often turn out.
20. Is your name?

CHAPTER XXII

PREDICATE ADJECTIVES

81. The complement of an intransitive verb is often an adjective.

The children were happy.
His hands are clean.
The water pail is full.
The boy seems homesick.
That man looks cheerful.
He became very strong.

Read the above sentences, omitting the last word in each. Tell what word completes the predicate in each sentence. What do these completing words modify or explain in each sentence? What kind of words are they?

82. An adjective that completes the predicate and explains the subject is called a Predicate Adjective.

EXERCISE 39

Name the subject, the verb, and the adjective that completes the predicate, in each of the following sentences: —

EXAMPLE: The day was pleasant. *Day* is the subject; *was* is the verb; *pleasant* is the adjective that completes the predicate; it modifies the subject *day*.

1. The sexton is faithful. 2. Fair was the sky. 3. Some men are generous. 4. How cold the weather is! 5. Do not look cross.

6. I shall feel greatly disappointed. 7. The room seems damp. 8. Do you feel happy? 9. I am terribly anxious. 10. How angry you look! 11. Were the girls very studious? 12. He appears very much discouraged. 13. Why was his attempt unsuccessful? 14. He became too careless. 15. How queer her hat looks! 16. The air has grown very misty. 17. Dead was his gallant horse. 18. November woods are bare. 19. Red were the flowers. 20. Is that man crazy?

Write sentences, using the following adjectives as complements: —

pleasant	sad	blue	heavy
round	busy	polite	brittle
small	lazy	smooth	shaggy

CHAPTER XXIII

PREDICATE NOUNS

83. The complement of an intransitive verb is often a noun.

1. Daniel Webster was a lawyer.
2. Lions are immense cats.
3. Madison became President.

Give the subject of each sentence. Read each sentence, omitting the word or words following the verb. What word in each predicate refers to the same person or thing as the subject? In each sentence find the word that completes the predicate.

84. A noun that completes the predicate and explains the subject is called a Predicate Noun, or a Predicate Nominative.

Predicate nouns and predicate adjectives are often called *attribute complements*. The verbs usually followed by these complements have already been given, § 78.

EXERCISE 40

Select the predicate nouns in the following sentences, and tell (1) what each word explains, and (2) of what verb each is a complement : —

1. Ice is solid water. 2. The oak tree was once an acorn. 3. Dewey suddenly became a national hero. 4. James Madison was the fourth President. 5. Diamond is the hardest substance known. 6. Sheep are timid animals. 7. The sun is a great round ball. 8. The balloon seemed a mere speck. 9. George will become a successful man. 10. What a careless boy you are!

EXERCISE 41

Fill each blank with a suitable complement, and tell whether you use a predicate noun or predicate adjective :

1. The fields are ——. 2. The weather is ——. 3. A noun is ——. 4. My hands are ——. 5. Whittier was a ——. 6. This story is very ——. 7. Harvey is very ——. 8. The sky looks ——. 9. Mining is a dangerous ——. 10. The robin is a cheerful ——. 11. Chicago is a large ——. 12. Our earth is a round ——. 13. Chess is an interesting ——. 14. The surface of the sea is sometimes ——, and sometimes ——. 15. Lansing is the —— of Michigan.

EXERCISE 42

1. Make sentences, using the following nouns as complements : —

president	king	season	neighbor
governor	city	teacher	chimney
general	country	horse	morning

2. Make sentences, using each of the following verbs with an attribute complement : —

Appear, become, feel, look, turn out, remain, continue, seem, sound, taste, grow.

CHAPTER XXIV

SIMPLE SUBJECT AND SIMPLE PREDICATE

85. In the earlier chapters of this book we learned that every simple sentence has **one subject** and **one predicate**, and that all the words of such a sentence (except independent words, like vocatives) belong to one or the other of these parts. Later we learned (Chapters XIV and XV) that many of the words in sentences are **modifiers** of other words. We have found also (Chapters XXI, XXII, and XXIII) that some words, called **complements**, are used to complete the meaning of verbs.

86. We are now to learn that nearly every subject, no matter how long it may be, contains a noun or pronoun called the **simple subject**, and that every predicate contains a verb or verb-phrase, called the **simple predicate**.

1. Cold winds blew from the north.
2. John Paul Jones was a brave officer.

In sentence 1, *cold* is a modifier of *winds*. If we omit this modifier, there remains the noun *winds*, which names the thing about which the assertion is made. We call the noun *winds* the simple subject, and *cold winds* the complete subject.

The group of words *from the north* is a modifier of *blew*. If we omit this modifier, there remains the verb *blew*, which makes the assertion. We call the verb *blew* the simple predicate, and *blew from the north* the complete predicate.

If we omit from the predicate of sentence 2, the complement *officer*, with its modifiers, there remains the verb *was*, which is the simple predicate.

87. The Simple Subject of a sentence is usually a noun or pronoun.

The Complete Subject is the simple subject with its modifiers.

The Simple Predicate is a verb or verb-phrase.

The Complete Predicate is the simple predicate with its modifiers and complements.

EXERCISE 43

Tell the simple and the complete subject, and the simple and the complete predicate, of each sentence in Exercises 35, 36, 39, and 40.

CHAPTER XXV

CORRECTING COMMON ERRORS

THE COPULA

88. Most verbs express action; as, *walk*, *bark*, *jump*, *throw*, *sing*, *run*, *shake*.

But the verb that we use oftenest does not express action at all, serving merely to **link together** other words; as, I *am* cold; Monroe *was* a Virginian. The forms of this verb most frequently used are: *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, and *were*.

We have learned that this verb is sometimes called the **copula**.

Use *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *has been*, *have been*, and *shall be*, in sentences.

Tell what words the copula links together in each sentence.

THE *S*-FORM OF VERBS

89. Nearly every verb has a form ending in *s*. This form needs special attention because many mistakes are made in using it.

The boy runs.	That apple is ripe.
The boys run.	Those apples are ripe.
The farmer rises early.	John was absent.
The farmers rise early.	Two boys were absent.

Which sentences have plural subjects? Which have singular subjects?

With what letter does each verb end when it has a singular subject?

Review Exercise 2 and notice which verbs end in *s*. Give the *s*-form of each of these verbs, using *he* as a subject: *think*, *give*, *wait*, *do*, *go*, *preach*, *catch*, *teach*, *strike*, *reach*.

90. Do not use the *s*-form of a verb with a plural subject.

91. Many mistakes are made in using *is*, *was*, and *has*. Notice that they are all *s*-forms and therefore cannot have plural subjects. If a verb has two or more singular subjects joined by *and*, the subject is considered plural; as, Father and mother *are* away. The pronouns *we*, *you*, and *they* are plural subjects.

EXERCISE 44

1. Fill each blank with *is* or *are*: —

1. Elephants —— found in Asia. 2. How —— your father? 3. Bananas —— brought from the West Indies. 4. Where —— my shoes? 5. —— the apples all gone? 6. The potatoes —— in the cellar. 7. What —— the boys doing? 8. —— all the tools put away? 9. The chickens —— spoiling the garden. 10. —— your father and mother well? 11. Edward and Robert —— at home.

EXERCISE 45

2. Fill each blank with *was* or *were*.

Never say, "You *was*," or "*Was* you?" Say, "You *were*," or "*Were* you?"

1. The pictures —— spoiled. 2. Where —— all the folks? 3. When —— these windows broken? 4. We —— fishing for perch. 5. What —— you doing? 6. Where —— the boy's father? 7. Where —— his brothers? 8. Why —— the stores closed? 9. —— you looking for me? 10. They —— ready and waiting.

EXERCISE 46

1. Fill the blanks with *has* or *have*: —

1. The teacher —— come. 2. Our boys —— won the game. 3. —— the floods done much damage? 4. How many legs —— a spider? 5. The crops —— all been harvested. 6. —— the purse been found? 7. —— the windows been fastened? 8. —— your father and mother returned? 9. How much —— the men accomplished? 10. —— the folks come home?

CHAPTER XXVI

CONTRACTIONS

"The boy who says *isn't* can play ball as well, shoot as well, and if necessary fight as well, as the boy who is content with the slovenly expression *ain't*." — E. H. Lewis.

92. Some of the worst mistakes in spoken English result from an effort to contract or shorten certain much-used expressions. Contractions, if properly formed, are convenient and unobjectionable in ordinary conversation. The only way to avoid the use of the incorrect forms is to become perfectly familiar with the proper contractions.

93. In writing contracted forms do not forget to use the apostrophe (') to indicate the omission of any letter or letters.

EXERCISE 47

Write sentences containing a correct contraction of each of the following groups of words : —

I am	we are	is he not?	it is
I have	he is	are you not?	it is not
he has	have not	have you not?	do not
you are	is not	are not	does not
was not	were not	cannot	could not

Some expressions may be contracted in two ways. *He is not here* may become *He's not here*, or *He isn't here*.

EXERCISE 48

Use contracted forms in these sentences. First give them orally and then write them.

1. I am not ready. 2. The musicians are not here. 3. Are you not coming? 4. Is not John here? 5. No, he is not here. 6. The people are not in sight. 7. It is never too late to learn. 8. It is not so easy, after all. 9. You are not in earnest. 10. Why are they not more prompt? 11. Have you not found the money? 12. Is it not a shame? 13. It is no trouble. 14. It is no laughing matter. 15. I am no coward. 16. Are you not joking? 17. No, I am not joking. 18. We are not to blame. 19. It is not work that kills. 20. It is not the fine coat that makes the gentleman. 21. Have you not told James? 22. I have not seen him. 23. He has left town. 24. They have not been able to find him.

EXERCISE 49

Use contracted forms for *was not* and *were not* : —

1. They were not satisfied. 2. Why were they not satisfied? 3. Why were you not there? 4. It was not possible to get away. 5. It was not a pleasant day. 6. Why were you not at the lecture? 7. I was not in town. 8. Albert was not worrying. 9. There was not enough to go around. 10. It was not my fault.

EXERCISE 50

Use contracted forms in these sentences : —

1. I have nothing to say.
2. You have no excuse.
3. I have not a moment to spare.
4. They have no reason to complain.
5. He has not a very promising future.
6. Your friend has not a dollar.
7. Have you not a match?
8. They have no better plan to offer.
9. You have a long time to wait.
10. That farmer has no cows.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Why is a verb necessary to every sentence? 2. Define verb. 3. What does the word mean? 4. What is a verb-phrase? Give an example. 5. What is an auxiliary? 6. What is a transitive verb? 7. What does the word *transitive* mean? 8. What is an intransitive verb? Give examples. 9. Why do not the words *Charles found* make a complete sentence? 10. Explain what is meant by the *doer* and the *receiver* of an action. 11. What is meant by the object of a transitive verb? 12. What decides whether a verb is transitive or intransitive? 13. Use *hide, float, collect, stop,* and *pour,* first transitively and then intransitively. 14. What is a verb of incomplete predication? Give examples.

15. What is a complement? 16. What is the complement of a transitive verb called? Of an intransitive verb? 17. Explain the use of the copula. 18. Name five copulative verbs and use them in sentences. 19. Explain predicate noun and predicate adjective. Illustrate, using the words *clear, happy, teacher,* and *storm* as complements. 20. Define simple subject and complete subject; simple predicate and complete predicate. Illustrate, using the sentence, *A trembling haze hangs over all the fields.*

21. Give the *s*-forms of *hurry, teach, go.* 22. Why is it wrong to say, *Where is the books?* 23. Give a correct contraction of *John is not here. He does not see. I have no money.*

EXERCISE 51

In the following selection, (1) find the verbs; (2) tell whether each is transitive or intransitive; (3) if a verb is transitive, name its object; (4) in verb-phrases, tell which part is the auxiliary.

PETER'S DECLAMATION

A friend of mine, Peter by name, had selected for his speech that extract from Patrick Henry's famous oration, which begins with the words, "I have but one lamp by which my feet are guided, and that is the lamp of experience."

Peter confidently mounted the rostrum; but although he had quietly memorized his piece in his own room, he had not accustomed his ears to his own voice in declamation. He shouted from the stage, "I have but one lamp — lamp — lamp" and he could get no further. His speech had gone from his memory. He passed his left hand across his forehead in a vain effort to recall it, while with his right he pulled at his trousers as if he thought it might have slipped down into his pocket; but it came not. He began again, "I have but one lamp — lamp — lamp —," and then the teacher, to the amusement of the school, said, "Come down, Peter; your lamp has gone out." — JOHN B. GORDON.

After carefully reading the above selection, see how well you can write the story from memory.

EXERCISE 52

Write a composition about *A Day at School.* The following notes may help you: —

Time of leaving home; distance; what you saw on your way; opening exercises; your classes in the forenoon; recess; games; noon intermission; afternoon session; any visitors; other events of interest; your best lesson, in what study, why?

Arrange your sentences in two paragraphs, one about the forenoon, and one about the afternoon.

CHAPTER XXVII

ADVERBS

94. Just as an **adjective** is often employed to make the meaning of a **noun** more definite, so we need words to modify the meaning of **verbs**. Most verbs express action. This action may vary as to manner, time, place, or other circumstances; as,—

He walked	rapidly.	They are waiting	quietly.
	slowly.		together.
	constantly.		anxiously.
	yesterday.		patiently.
	away.		impatiently.
	thus.		now.
	to-day.		there.
	easily.		here.

A word used to make the meaning of a verb more definite is called an **adverb**. The word *adverb* means **near a verb**. Adverbs are so called because they are frequently joined to verbs (as adjectives are joined to nouns) to modify their meaning.

95. Adverbs usually modify verbs by showing *how*, *when*, or *where*.

(1) Adverbs that show *how* or *in what manner* are called **adverbs of manner**; as, *swiftly*, *easily*, *thus*.

(2) Those that show *when* are called **adverbs of time**; as, *yesterday*, *now*, *daily*, *soon*.

(3) Those that show *where* are called **adverbs of place**; as, *here*, *everywhere*, *there*, *backward*.

EXERCISE 53

Name the adverbs in the following sentences. Tell what verb each adverb modifies, what kind of adverb it is, and how it modifies the verb.

EXAMPLE: The horses galloped wildly away.

Wildly is an adverb of manner, modifying the verb *galloped;* it shows how the horses galloped. *Away* is an adverb of *place*, modifying *galloped;* it shows where the horses galloped.

1. Apples were scattered everywhere.
2. The officers handled the men roughly.
3. Mr. Smith formerly lived there.
4. The sun rose pleasantly on the village.
5. The men suddenly started back.
6. You all did love him once.
7. Shut that door instantly.
8. A light, swift boat sped northward.

CHAPTER XXVIII

ADVERBS MODIFYING ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

96. While adverbs, as their name implies, are most frequently employed to modify verbs, yet they are often used to modify **adjectives**; as, —

too more extremely needlessly	anxious.	very exceedingly unusually remarkably	pleasant.

97. In like manner adverbs are employed to modify the meaning of other **adverbs.**

The man walked	somewhat very too rather	rapidly.

98. An adverb that modifies an adjective or another adverb usually expresses **degree.** "Unusually pleasant" means pleasant to an unusual degree. "Walked *very* rapidly" implies that the action was rapid in a high degree.

99. Adverbs that modify adjectives or adverbs usually answer the question, *How much?* or *To what extent?* and are called **adverbs of degree.**

The road was very dusty. *How* dusty? *Very* dusty.

They are exceedingly poor. *How* poor? *Exceedingly* poor.

An adverb of degree sometimes modifies a verb; as, The picture *greatly* pleased me.

100. DEFINITION. — **An adverb is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb;** as, You write *too slowly.*

EXERCISE 54

1. In these sentences point out the adverbs that modify adjectives or other adverbs: —

1. Our soldiers fought very bravely.
2. This problem is exceedingly difficult.
3. That child seems supremely happy.
4. The most durable ropes are made of hemp.
5. Some men are rich enough to live without work.
6. Do not crowd your work so closely together.
7. How often we forget to use adverbs correctly!
8. The growth of Chicago has been remarkably rapid.
9. Be particularly careful to distinguish adjectives from adverbs.
10. The weather, which had been bitterly cold, was now considerably warmer.

2. Fill each blank with an adverb. Do not repeat an adverb if you can think of a different one that is suitable.

1. The shore was —— rocky. 2. The exercises were —— neatly written. 3. My house was built —— recently. 4. Jennie lagged —— behind. 5. That boy is —— absent. 6. Effie makes that mistake —— often. 7. Philip is —— always late.

CHAPTER XXIX

CLASSES OF ADVERBS

101. We have found that most adverbs may be divided, according to their meaning, into four classes.

1. **An Adverb of Manner answers the question, How? or In what manner?** as, *swiftly*, *gently*, *magnificently*.

2. **An Adverb of Time answers the question, When? or How often?** as, *then*, *now*, *frequently*.

3. **An Adverb of Place answers the question, Where?** as, *here*, *there*, *somewhere*.

4. **An Adverb of Degree answers the question, How much? or To what extent?** as, *very*, *exceedingly*, *uncommonly*.

EXERCISE 55

1. Use each of these adverbs in a separate sentence: —

Carefully ashore, badly, easily, out, quietly, exceedingly, swiftly, yesterday, nearly, softly, together, promptly, away, safely, slowly, soon, almost, beautifully, not, fiercely, well, to-morrow, somewhat, much, very, always, up, ahead, extremely.

2. Arrange the above adverbs, as well as you can, in four columns, as follows: —

MANNER	TIME	PLACE	DEGREE

EXERCISE 56

In the sentences below, (1) pick out the adverbs and tell what each modifies. (2) Tell whether the modified

word is a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. (3) Classify each adverb as an adverb of manner, time, place, or degree.

1. The dog lazily shifted his position.
2. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.
3. The morning was remarkably fine and clear.
4. Footsteps were heard, and the door suddenly swung back.
5. The two men were almost equally agreeable in conversation.
6. Herds of cattle were quietly grazing in the meadows.
7. The usual service of the choir was managed tolerably well.
8. He moved just sufficiently to avoid the sun and keep in the shade.
9. Fireflies usually sparkle most vividly in the darkest places.
10. The schoolmaster occasionally laid aside his dignity and became wonderfully gentle.
11. The flashes of lightning made the succeeding darkness doubly terrible.
12. It was a brilliant moonlight night, but extremely cold; our chaise rolled rapidly over the frozen ground, and the postboy smacked his whip incessantly.
13. His fences were continually falling to pieces; his cows would either go astray or get among the cabbages; weeds were sure to grow quicker in his field than anywhere else.
14. Often I think of the beautiful town
That is seated by the sea;
Often in thought go up and down
The pleasant streets of the dear old town,
And my youth comes back to me.

EXERCISE 57

From the above sentences select nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs (ten of each), and arrange them as follows: —

NOUNS	PRONOUNS	ADJECTIVES	VERBS	ADVERBS

CHAPTER XXX

"THERE" INTRODUCTORY

102. Sentences like the following require special attention; —

There came a voice from heaven.
There are many lions in Africa.

What is the subject of the first sentence? What came from heaven? Does the sentence have the natural or the transposed order? Arrange it in the natural order. What word can you omit?

Arrange the second sentence in the natural order. What word can you omit? What is the subject of the sentence? The predicate?

103. Sometimes the word *there* is not used as an adverb, but introduces a sentence without forming a necessary part of it. *There* is then called an **expletive**, because it simply **fills out** the sentence. The result of using *there* as an expletive is to transpose the order of the subject and predicate.

104. In sentences introduced by *there*, the verb-forms *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, etc., are not copulas, but they assert *existence*. These words are occasionally used in this way in other positions; as, Whatever *is*, is right.

EXERCISE 58

Tell the subject and predicate of each of the following sentences: —

1. There arose a mighty tempest.
2. There is no such word as fail.
3. There shall be no night there.
4. There is a perennial nobleness in work.

5. There came a multitude out of the cities.
6. In Michigan, there are very extensive copper mines.
7. In Washington, along Puget Sound, there are large lumber mills.
8. Is there no hand on high to shield the brave? — CAMPBELL.
9. There rose a shout prolonged and loud. — LONGFELLOW.
10. Is there anything like the odor of strawberries? — BURROUGHS.
11. There was no sound of man or cattle. — STEVENSON.
12. There is a pleasure in the pathless woods. — BYRON.
13. There is always a best way of doing everything. — EMERSON.
14. Of the field strawberry, there are a great many varieties. — BURROUGHS.
15. There are seven pillars of Gothic mold,
In Chillon's dungeons deep and old. — BYRON.

EXERCISE 59

Write a composition of at least one hundred words about *A Pleasant Outing.* You may use the following notes, or make notes of your own. Use adjectives and adverbs wherever they will brighten up your sentences: —

Preparations, assembling; time of starting; companions. If you rode, tell how. Distance, incidents, what you saw or did on the way, arrival; the grove or grounds; amusements, games, etc., dinner; the return, arrival home; your recollections of the day, pleasant or otherwise, why?

Arrange your sentences in paragraphs.

Other subjects for similar exercises: —

A day in vacation.
The baseball game.
A Saturday holiday.
How I cooked a dinner.
How to make bread.
A day on the farm.
A game of football.
A game of basketball.

CHAPTER XXXI

COMPLEMENTS AND PREDICATE MODIFIERS

105. The aim of this chapter is to make it easier to distinguish between complements, and modifiers of the predicate.

106. A complement is something that **must** be added to a verb to complete the predicate, not something that **may** be added.

Sidney Lanier was a poet.
The stars shine brightly.

In the first sentence the word *poet* is necessary to the sense, and is therefore a complement. In the second sentence, the word *brightly* makes the meaning of the verb *shine* more complete, and yet it is not a complement because the sentence is grammatically complete without it. *Stars shine brightly* is more definite in meaning than *Stars shine*, but as an assertion one sentence is no more complete than the other.

EXERCISE 60

In the following sentences examine each verb and decide whether it is a verb of complete predication. Tell whether the word or group of words that follows the verb is a complement, or a modifier of the predicate.

1. The boy ran away. 2. The clock ticked slowly. 3. A raindrop fell into the sea. 4. John has become very attentive. 5. Those trees have grown rapidly. 6. Calhoun was a senator from South Carolina. 7. Indians live in wigwams. 8. Webster was the idol of Massachusetts. 9. The windows rattled at night. 10. Mr. Smith has become my neighbor. 11. The flowers faded in a few hours.

13. The steamer sailed yesterday. 14. John is growing rapidly. 15. John is growing handsome. 16. He went away angry.

17. The day is done, and the darkness
Falls from the wings of Night,
As a feather is wafted downward
From an eagle in his flight.

107. The same verb may be a **copulative** verb in one sentence and a **transitive** verb in another.

EXERCISE 61

Tell whether each complement is an object, a predicate noun, or a predicate adjective.

1. The milk turned *sour*.
2. Success turned his *head*.
3. Arnold turned *traitor*.
4. The rose smells *sweet*.
5. The dog smells a *rat*.
6. Mary feels her *loss*.
7. I feel *cold*.
8. The peaches taste *delicious*.
9. Have you tasted the *jelly*?
10. The weather continued *fair*.
11. He continued his *journey*.
12. Sleigh bells sound *cheerful*.
13. Sound the *alarm!*
14. That suit becomes *George*.
15. Mercy becomes a *king*.
16. Edward became *king*.
17. Thomas returned a *captain*.
18. John returned the *umbrella*.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Explain why adverbs are needed. 2. What does the word *adverb* mean? 3. Mention three ways in which adverbs may modify verbs. 4. Use adverbs of time, place, and manner in sentences. 5. Give an example of an adverb (*a*) modifying an adjective, (*b*) modifying an adverb. 6. When adverbs are thus used, what questions do they answer? 7. What are such adverbs called? 8. Give the definition of adverb. 9. Name and define four classes of adverbs. 10. Give examples of each class. 11. In the sentence, *There once lived a great king*, what is the subject? 12. How is *there* used? 13. What is such a word called? 14. How can complements be distinguished from modifiers of the predicate? 15. In the sentence, *The horse ran swiftly*, is *swiftly* a complement or a modifier? Why?

CHAPTER XXXII

ANALYSIS

108. You have already had some practice in pointing out the simple subject and the simple predicate of sentences, and in recognizing the modifiers of each. This process is called **Analysis.**

109. Analysis is breaking up anything into its parts, or, as we say in common language, "taking it to pieces." In grammar, it is separating sentences into the parts of which they are composed, and pointing out the relations of the parts.

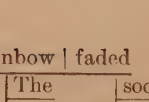
110. There are two methods of analyzing sentences: oral analysis and analysis by diagram. (See page 109.)

ORAL ANALYSIS

The beautiful rainbow soon faded away.

This is a simple delarative sentence. Tell why. The complete subject is, *The beautiful rainbow;* the complete predicate is, *soon faded away.* The simple subject is the noun *rainbow*, which is modified by the definite article *The* and the adjective *beautiful;* the simple predicate is *faded*, which is modified by the adverbs *soon* and *away.*

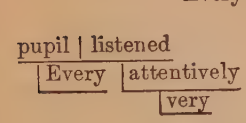
ANALYSIS BY DIAGRAM



In analyzing the sentence by diagram, we draw a horizontal line, place above it the simple subject and simple predicate, and separate them by a vertical line, which meets the sentence line. Each modifier is written below, and joined by a line to the word it modifies.

111. Sometimes a modifying word (adjective or adverb) is itself modified by another word (adverb).

Every pupil listened very attentively.



The simple predicate *listened* is modified by *very attentively; attentively* directly modifies the verb, and *very* modifies *attentively.*

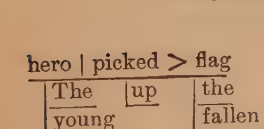
EXERCISE 62

Analyze the following sentences orally or by diagram:—

1. You write too rapidly. 2. Most excellent berries grow here. 3. Your brother calls very often. 4. Read more carefully. 5. A very strong wind was blowing. 6. That old man walks too briskly. 7. The horse then ran still faster. 8. William always lags far behind. 9. The sun shines less brightly. 10. Really attentive boys always succeed. 11. Your penmanship has improved very much. 12. Gently blow the warm south winds.

112. ANALYSIS. — Object of a transitive verb.

The young hero picked up the fallen flag.



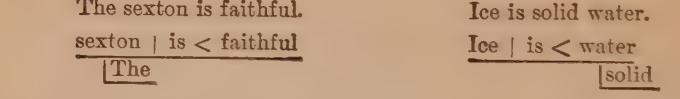
The object of a transitive verb is placed on the sentence line after its verb. The pointer inserted thus (>) shows that *flag* is the receiver of the action expressed by the verb.

EXERCISE 63

Analyze the following sentences orally or by diagram: —

1. Indians build fine canoes. 2. Paris contains many beautiful buildings. 3. Delaware produces most excellent fruits. 4. Do you sell Java coffee? 5. The burnt child dreads the fire. 6. Badgers have long, flat feet. 7. Small donkeys easily carry heavy loads. 8. A good paymaster never lacks workmen. 9. A guilty conscience needs no accuser. 10. All liars should have good memories.

113. ANALYSIS. — Predicate adjective and predicate noun.



A predicate adjective or predicate noun is placed on the sentence line after the copula or copulative verb. The pointer inserted thus (<) shows that the complement explains the subject.

EXERCISE 64

Analyze orally or by diagram the first ten sentences in Exercise 39, and the first five in Exercise 40.

CHAPTER XXXIII

PREPOSITIONS

114. We have next to study words that do not name like nouns, nor assert like verbs, nor modify like adjectives and adverbs, but **show the relation** between different words of a sentence.

We need men *of* courage.
These children write *with* care.
The map was drawn *by* me.
The soldiers are eager *for* the battle.

The word *of* shows the relation between the noun *courage* and the noun *men*.

The words *of courage* show what kind of men we need.

The word *with* shows the relation between the noun *care* and the verb *write*.

The words *with care* show how the children write.

The word *by* shows the relation between the pronoun *me* and the verb *was drawn*.

The words *by me* show who drew the map.

The word *for* shows the relation between the noun *battle* and the adjective *eager*.

The words *for the battle* show in what respect the soldiers are *eager*.

Words like *of*, *with*, *by*, and *for*, which show the relation between a noun or pronoun and some other word or words in the sentence, are **prepositions**. They are so called because they are usually **placed before** the word which they join to the rest of the sentence.

The noun or pronoun used after the preposition is called its **object**.

115. DEFINITION. — **A preposition is a word used with a noun or pronoun to show its relation to some other word or words in the sentence**; as, An old man sat *in* the doorway.

116. One preposition may have two or more objects; as, They traveled over *sticks* and *stones*. One object may be governed by two prepositions; as, They ran *up* and *down* the street.

EXERCISE 65

Use the following prepositions in short sentences with a noun or pronoun as object: —

EXAMPLE: They are talking *about* you.

about	among	beside	for	over	until
above	around	besides	from	through	unto
across	at	between	in	throughout	up
after	before	beyond	into	till	upon
against	behind	by	of	to	with
along	below	down	off	toward	within
amid	beneath	except	on	under	without

EXERCISE 66

Fill the blanks in the sentences below with suitable prepositions taken from the above list.

When Benjamin Franklin was —— his seventeenth year, he ran away —— his home —— Boston. He first went —— New York —— a sailing vessel. —— looking —— work —— that place —— finding what he wanted, he started —— foot —— Philadelphia. When he walked —— that city, his clothes were spattered —— mud and —— each arm he carried a long roll —— bread that he had just bought —— a baker. A girl named Deborah Reed stood —— the door —— her father's house and laughed —— him as he trudged —— the street. A few years —— this occurrence she became the wife —— Bejamin Franklin, who soon became famous all —— the world.

EXERCISE 67

Pick out the prepositions and name the words between which each preposition shows a relation.

EXAMPLE: *In* is a preposition showing a relation between its object *valleys* and the verb *are found*. *Of* is a preposition showing a relation between its object *steamboat* and the noun *whistle*.

1. The best farms are found in valleys.
2. The whistle of the steamboat echoed among the hills.
3. A bay is a body of water partly inclosed between two headlands.
4. All the land that is drained by a single river is called a basin.
5. The stockings were hung by the chimney with care.
6. Sir Walter Scott's house still stands at Abbotsford.
7. Harbors are places where vessels find safety from storms.
8. An hour's ride by train brought us into Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland; without delay we walked down the street to see the monument erected to the memory of Sir Walter Scott.
9. He goes on Sunday to the church
   And sits among his boys.
10. The splendor falls on castle walls,
    And snowy summits old in story;
    The long light shakes across the lakes,
    And the wild cataract leaps in glory.

CHAPTER XXXIV

PREPOSITIONS OR ADVERBS

117. Some of the words given in the list of prepositions (Exercise 65) are often used as adverbs. It is **use** that determines to which part of speech a word belongs in a given sentence.

1. An adverb has **no object**; a preposition **always has** an object.

ADVERBS	PREPOSITIONS
A dog ran *up*.	A dog ran *up* the stairs.
Down came the horse.	*Down* the street came the horse.
He looked *around*.	He looked *around* the room.

In the first group of sentences, *up*, *down*, and *around* have no objects; they are adverbs modifying the verb. In the second group these words take objects and are prepositions.

2. Sometimes a word that looks like a preposition is followed by a noun, and yet is really an adverb.

A little boy hung *down* his head.
The men were pulling *up* a bucket.
The child knocked *over* a chair.

Here each of the italicized words is followed by a noun, but in each instance the noun is the object of a transitive verb and the italicized word is an adverb modifying the verb. This will be seen more readily if the sentences are written thus: —

A little boy hung his head *down*.
The men were pulling a bucket *up*.
The child knocked a chair *over*.

3. Sometimes we find together two words that look like prepositions: —

She looked *around at* the children.
Rob went *along to* the shed.
He got his boots *off with* difficulty.

In the first sentence, *around* is an adverb and modifies the verb *looked;* it shows where she looked; *at* is a preposition showing the relation of *children* to the verb *looked;* she looked *at* the children. Explain the other italicized words.

EXERCISE 68

1. Tell which of the italicized words are adverbs and which are prepositions, and give a reason for your opinion.

1. For further particulars inquire *within.* 2. Mr. Hatch will return *within* an hour. 3. The boy ran *up* the hill. 4. Run *up* the Stars and Stripes. 5. He passed *by* on the other side. 6. He lingered long *by* the gate. 7. He hid *behind* the haystack. 8. You will get *behind in* your studies. 9. The path leads *through* the woods. 10. When do you expect to get *through?* 11. The carpenter fell *off* the house. 12. Suddenly one of the wheels came *off.* 13. We shall come back *before* dinner. 14. I have seen that man *before.* 15. Will you help me *along with* this bundle? 16. They drove *along* the shaded street. 17. *During* a thunder storm Franklin sent *up* his kite. 18. I went *down* the side of the ship. 19. I took *out* one of the fowling pieces. 20. I let myself *down into* the water. 21. He had carried his little sister *about in* his arms. 22. The child had come *in without* his knowledge. 23. Their voices echoed *down* the stairs. 24. *Down toward* the customhouse came the young men. 25. A brook babbled *along among* the willows.

2. Find five verb-phrases in the above exercise.

EXERCISE 69

Write a composition of at least one hundred words about *My Street,* using the following notes: —

Name of street; situation, in what part of town, direction, width, length; improvements, if paved tell how; shade trees, houses, appearance of street, lawns, flowers, public buildings, stores, factories. Any feeling of attachment to the street? Why?

CHAPTER XXXV

PHRASES

118. A group of words may be used as a single part of speech.

1. He is a *wealthy* man.
2. He is a man *of wealth.*
3. The boy writes *carefully.*
4. The boy writes *with care.*

What word modifies *man* in the first sentence? What part of speech is *wealthy?* What two words in the second sentence have the same meaning as *wealthy?* What do these words modify? What do they show? Like what part of speech are the words *of wealth* used?

What word modifies *writes* in the third sentence? What part of speech is it? What two words in the fourth sentence do the same work as *carefully* in the third? What do they modify? What do they show? Like what part of speech are the words *with care* used?

The words *of wealth* are used like an adjective, because they tell *what kind* of man. The words *with care* are used like an *adverb*, because they show *how* the boy writes. Such a group of words is called a **phrase.**

119. DEFINITION. — **A Phrase is a group of related words having neither subject nor predicate.**

A phrase is usually equivalent to a single **part of speech.**

120. A phrase that consists of a preposition and its object (with or without modifiers) is called **a prepositional phrase**; as, They walked *along the narrow streets.*

EXERCISE 70

Tell whether each phrase in the following sentences is used like an adjective or an adverb : —

1. Little Jack Horner sat *in a corner.* (Sat where?)
2. The bridge *over the stream* was carried away. (What bridge?)
3. Jack and Jill went *up the hill.* (Went where?)
4. My brother will return *in two weeks.* (Return when?)
5. The blade *of this knife* is broken. (What blade?)
6. The chairs *on the veranda* are new. (What chairs?)
7. That man works *with great energy.* (Works how?)
8. *In this mansion* once lived Robert E. Lee. (Lived where?)
9. She is a woman *of wonderful patience.* (What kind of woman?)
10. He puts the cart *before the horse.* (Puts it where?)

EXERCISE 71

Use a prepositional phrase instead of the adjective or adverb in the following sentences : —

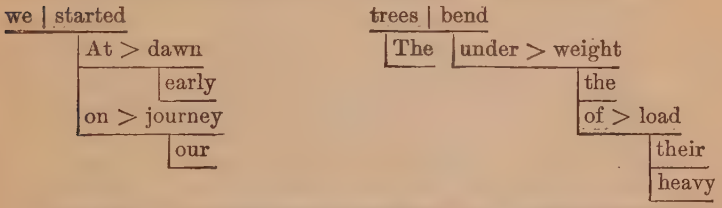
EXAMPLE: Moscow is a *Russian* city = Moscow is a city *of Russia.*

1. Moscow is a *Russian* city. 2. Who is that *dark-eyed* girl? 3. Jackson was a *courageous* man. 4. Many tourists visit the *Swiss* mountains. 5. They were hurrying *homeward.* 6. What a *beautiful* scene this is! 7. That was a *cowardly* act. 8. He was treated *cruelly.* 9. I live in a *three-story* house. 10. Some girls learn *easily.* 11. Are you fond of *country* life? 12. We visited the *royal* palace. 13. We were *joyfully* received. 14. She looked *everywhere* for the thimble. 15. Some prefer *Florida* oranges. 16. I drink *Ceylon* tea. 17. The river was spanned by an *iron* bridge. 18. We have passed a *sleepless* night.

NOTE. — Not all adjective or adverbial phrases can be changed into adjectives or adverbs. In the sentence, "The brook flows through peaceful meadows," we cannot substitute an adverb that will express the same meaning as the phrase, *through peaceful meadows.* But such a phrase modifies a verb, and therefore is used like an adverb.

121. ANALYSIS. — Prepositional phrase.

1. At early dawn we started on our journey.
2. The trees bend under the weight of their heavy load.



A prepositional phrase, like an adjective or an adverb, is connected by lines with the word it modifies. In sentence 1, the verb *started* is modified by two phrases, *at early dawn,* and *on our journey.* In sentence 2, the verb *bend* is modified by the phrase, *under the weight of their heavy load;* and the noun *weight,* the principal word of the phrase, is modified by the phrase, *of their heavy load.* The pointer is inserted thus (>) between the preposition and its object.

EXERCISE 72

1. Analyze, orally or by diagram, the following sentences: —

1. I shot an arrow into the air.
2. The happy children paused in their play.
3. Many people fled in fear to the forest.
4. Down sank in the west the great red sun.
5. A blessed calm fell on her quiet spirit.
6. They are anxiously waiting for an answer.
7. He climbed the tower of the old North Church.
8. A trembling haze hangs over all the fields.
9. Brightly the sunset lighted the streets of the village.
10. The moonlight streamed through the windows of the old castle.

2. Analyze ten sentences in Exercise 60.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. In the sentence, *The sailor jumped into the water,* what word brings the noun *water* into relation with the verb *jumped?* 2. What

is such a word called? 3. Define preposition. 4. What does the word mean? 5. What is meant by the object of a preposition? 6. Use these prepositions in sentences: *across*, *between*, *under*, *through*, *from*. 7. Use these pronouns as the objects of prepositions: *him*, *her*, *me*, *us*, *you*, *them*. 8. Make a sentence in which the preposition comes after its object. 9. In the sentence, *The storm passed over*, what part of speech is *over?* Why? 10. In the sentence, *He took off his hat*, what part of speech is *off?* 11. In the sentence, *I walked along with George*, what is *along?* What is *with?* 12. In the sentence, *He writes with care*, what adverb would have the same meaning as the words *with care?* Why? 13. What is such a group of words called? 14. Define phrase. 15. Define prepositional phrase. 16. Give an example of a phrase used (*a*) like an adjective, (*b*) like an adverb.

EXERCISE 73

The following selection is a good example of the use of adjectives, adverbs, and prepositional phrases, to produce a vivid picture. Find them, and tell what they modify.

The day had been intensely cold. Toward evening the snow fell fast and heavily. Sidney had not been in London before since he was a child. The immense city was covered with a wintry and icy mist, through which the hurrying passengers and the slow-moving vehicles passed like spectres along the dismal and slippery streets. He knew not a step of the way; he was pushed to and fro; his scarcely intelligent questions were impatiently answered; the snow covered him; the frost pierced to his veins. At length a man, more kindly than the rest, procured him a hackney coach, and directed the driver to the distant quarter of Berkeley Square. The snow balled under the hoofs of the horses; the groaning vehicle proceeded at the pace of a hearse. At length the coach stopped, the benumbed driver heavily descended, the sound of the knocker knelled loud through the muffled air, and the light from Mr. Beaufort's hall glared full upon the dizzy eyes of the visitor. — LORD LYTTON (adapted).

Find five verb-phrases in the above selection, and name the *auxiliary* used in each.

CHAPTER XXXVI

CONJUNCTIONS

122. Study the italicized words in the following sentences: —

> Cincinnati *and* Louisville are situated on the Ohio River.
> Was the horse injured in the barn *or* on the road?
> Boston became a large city *because* it had a good harbor.

In the first sentence, the words *Cincinnati* and *Louisville* are connected by *and;* in the second, the group of words, *in the barn* and *on the road*, are connected by *or;* in the third, the two groups, *Boston became a large city* and *it had a good harbor*, are connected by *because*.

In these sentences, *and* connects **words**; *or* and *because* connect **groups of words**. Words like *and*, *or*, *because*, that are simply used as connecting words, are called **conjunctions**. The word *conjunction* means **a joining together**.

DEFINITION. — **A Conjunction is a word used to connect words or groups of words**; as, Promise little *and* do much.

123. The most important conjunctions are: —

(1) *and*, *but*, *or*, *nor*, used to connect words or groups of words.

(2) *although*, *as*, *because*, *for*, *if*, *lest*, *since*, *than*, *that*, *unless*, *yet*, used to connect groups of words.

124. Do not confound conjunctions and prepositions. The work of a conjunction is to **connect**; as, The sun set *and* darkness came on. The work of a preposition is to show **relation**; as, The sun sets *in* the west. A preposition **always** has an object. A conjunction **never** has an object.

EXERCISE 74

Pick out the conjunctions in these sentences and tell what words or groups of words they connect: —

1. Georgia and Alabama produce much cotton.
2. General Washington was skillful but cautious.
3. The Welland Canal connects Lake Erie and Lake Ontario.
4. La Salle was a bold and tireless explorer.
5. He sailed up the Great Lakes and down the Mississippi River.
6. He kept on though the weather was cold and stormy.
7. Men never succeed unless they try.
8. I will talk with you, but I will not eat with you.
9. The earth was bright, and the sky was blue.
10. Do you intend to be a lawyer or a doctor?
11. We found that we could now see the light.
12. Rich and rare were the gems she wore.

EXERCISE 75

1. In the following exercise fill the blanks with conjunctions: —

1. Jennie is slow —— studious.
2. Take the horse —— cow to the pasture.
3. Will school open on Monday —— Tuesday?
4. Fred went fishing, —— he caught nothing.
5. Did you call John —— Charles?
6. Christmas came —— school was closed.
7. The hammer has been lost —— stolen.
8. I saw him, —— he did not see me.
9. It rained very hard, —— I had an umbrella.
10. The days of June are warm —— pleasant.
11. Darkness comes on —— the laborer goes home.
12. Shall I boil —— bake the potatoes?
13. Clara finished her work —— went out to play.
14. Who found the bracelet, Anna —— Emily?
15. Shall I take the apples into the house —— into the barn?
16. They will arrive at noon —— the train is not late.
17. He remained at home —— he was ill.

18. We shall go to the park —— it rains.
19. The children say —— the clock is fast.
20. The weather was stormy, —— every pupil was present.

2. Write ten sentences, using a different conjunction in each (see list, § 123).

3. Find ten conjunctions in your reader, and tell what each connects.

CHAPTER XXXVII

INTERJECTIONS

125. In the following sentences what words are used independently?

Oh, this is a terrible accident!
Hurrah! we've won the game.
Alas, the poor boy is dead!
Hello! is this Mr. Smith?

Give the subject and the predicate of each sentence. Find a word in each sentence that belongs neither to the subject nor to the predicate. For what purpose are these words used? Explain the punctuation (p. 387).

Words like *oh*, *hurrah*, *alas*, *hello*, that are used independently to express surprise, joy, grief, impatience, and the like, are called **interjections**. Interjection means **thrown in.**

126. DEFINITION. — **An Interjection is an exclamatory word used to express sudden or strong feeling**; as, *Hush!* I hear a footstep.

127. It is not easy to define the meaning of particular interjections. Some of them may express almost any feeling from anger to joy. The common interjections are used as follows: *hurrah* expresses joy; *ah*, surprise; *alas*, grief; *ay*, assent; *hush*, *hark*, call for silence; *fie*, *pooh*, *pshaw*, express contempt; *lo* means look; *halloo* or *hello* calls attention.

The most frequently used interjections are *O* and *oh*. Besides expressing a wish, *O* is often used before the name of a person or thing addressed (vocative); as, O wise young judge! *Oh* is used to express various emotions, according to the tone and manner, such as anger, joy, surprise, pain, sorrow, anxiety, or a wish.

EXERCISE 76

Name the interjections in the sentences below, and tell what feeling you think each expresses.

1. Pshaw! that's no reason.
2. Alas! what will become of me now!
3. What then, O Rustum, will he say to this?
4. Hurrah! I've caught a pickerel!
5. Oh! I'm thankful he is gone!
6. Ay, tear her tattered ensign down!
7. Oh that the waves were flowing over me!
8. O father! I hear the sound of guns.
9. Good-by! come again soon!
10. Oh, you are there, are you?

EXERCISE 77

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with the interjections that seem most suitable: —

1. —— how things have changed! 2. —— do you hear that music? 3. —— I don't believe a word you say. 4. —— they will hear us. 5. —— that is nonsense! 6. —— they listened dumb and breathless. 7. What do you command, —— king? 8. —— give me my lowly thatched cottage again! 9. —— we want you over here! 10. —— that daylight would come! 11. —— they all are in their graves.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

THE SAME WORD AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH

128. To avoid mistakes in deciding to which part of speech a word belongs, it is necessary to notice carefully

how the word is used in the sentence. We cannot always judge correctly by the **look** of a word; we must think **what the word does.**

1. They always *walk* to church.
2. We took a *walk* this morning.

In 1, *walk* is evidently a verb because it makes an assertion. Every sentence must contain at least one verb, and no other word in this sentence asserts anything. In 2, *walk* is a noun because it is the name of something; it is the object of the transitive verb *took*, and we have learned that an object is usually a noun or a pronoun. Again, *walk* is modified by the indefinite article *a*. No word, except a noun, is ever modified by an article.

1. The *summer* passed too quickly.
2. Our friends have built two *summer* cottages.

In 1, *summer* is a noun because it is a name. It is the subject of a sentence and must therefore be a noun or pronoun. It is modified by the definite article *the*, which is used only with nouns.

In 2, *summer* is used as an adjective because it modifies the noun *cottages*. It shows what *kind* of cottages.

1. He spoke in a *loud* voice.
2. Do not speak so *loud*.

In 1, *loud* is an adjective because it modifies the noun *voice*. It shows the *kind* of voice. In 2, *loud* is an adverb because it modifies the verb *speak*. It shows *how*.

1. The visitors arrived soon *after*.
2. The visitors arrived soon *after* dinner.

In 1, *after* is an adverb because it modifies the verb *arrived*. It shows *when*. In 2, *after* is a preposition because it takes an object.

EXERCISE 78

In the following sentences classify the words in italics: —

1. Please call me *early*. 2. *Most* men like to be praised. 3. I like this book *best*. 4. The *early* bird catches the worm. 5. You are *about* right. 6. I never saw him *before*. 7. This horse travels *faster* than that. 8. Several men were standing *about*. 9. The horse ran *down* the street. 10. It rained *hard*. 11. The *last* news is worse than the *first*. 12. Fulton made the *first* steamboat. 13. I asked him *about* the fire. 14. The apples are very *hard*. 15. I have lost my *only* son. 16. I will ride *behind*. 17. *By* whom was this machine made? 18. Nobody *except* George dared to enter the house. 19. The train was on a *down* grade. 20. Please *step* aside. 21. I admire your *work*. 22. Who *shot* the dog? 23. This weather *delights* me. 24. Do not take another *step*. 25. It was a quiet *September* evening. 26. You *work* too hard. 27. We all suffered with the *cold*. 28. They *room* together at college. 29. He bought a pound of *shot*. 30. Tourists often employ a *guide*. 31. Shall I *guide* you to the house? 32. I *thought* you were mistaken. 33. They dwell by a *mountain* brook. 34. A sentence expresses a *thought*. 35. The men are on a *strike*.

EXERCISE 79

1. Use these words in sentences, first as nouns, and then as verbs: —

EXAMPLE: What kind of *paints* do you use?
The artist *paints* very well.

Brush, dust, carpet, drum, blaze, attempt, snow, escape, demand, love, light, pause, struggle, curtain, lecture, smoke, whip, head, hand, hope, endeavor, watch, praise, sleep, hammer, eye, iron.

2. Use these words in sentences, first as nouns and then as adjectives: —

EXAMPLE: That is a fine piece of *silk*.
She wore a *silk* dress.

Mountain, ocean, gold, cloth, cold, dinner, family, cotton, summer, steam, apple, flag, book, flower, June, winter, paper.

EXERCISE 80

In Exercises 73 and 74, find ten of each of the kinds of words named below, and arrange them as indicated: —

PRONOUNS	ADJECTIVES	VERBS	ADVERBS	PREPOSITIONS	CONJUNCTIONS

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Define conjunction. Give an example. 2. Make a sentence in which a conjunction connects (*a*) words; (*b*) groups of words. 3. Mention ten conjunctions. 4. How does a conjunction differ from a preposition? 5. What is an interjection? 6. What does the word mean? 7. What feeling is usually expressed by the following interjections? *alas, hurrah, hush, pshaw, hello.* 8. Why can we not always tell by the *look* of a word what part of speech it is? How can we tell? 9. Use the word *hand* as a noun and as a verb. 10. Use the word *salt* as a noun, as an adjective, as a verb.

CHAPTER XXXIX

COMPOUND SUBJECTS

129. Most of the sentences thus far studied have contained one simple subject (a noun or pronoun) and one simple predicate (a verb or verb-phrase); as, —

Each *soldier* | *wrapped* his blanket about him.
Atlanta | *has grown* rapidly since the Civil War.

A sentence consisting of one subject and one predicate is a **simple** sentence.

130. A simple sentence sometimes has a subject made up of **two or more** simple subjects joined together; as, —

Time and tide | wait for no man.

In the preceding sentence the subject consists of two nouns joined together, but as they have the same predicate, they are regarded as one subject.

131. Two or more simple subjects having the same predicate form one compound subject.

EXERCISE 81

Separate by a vertical line the complete subject and the complete predicate of each of the following sentences. Name the nouns or pronouns that compose each compound subject, and tell how they are connected: —

1. England and Wales have extensive copper mines.
2. The cavalcade, the banners, and the music swept by.
3. No tree or shrub grew upon the surface of the barren island.
4. Marquette and La Salle explored the Mississippi River.
5. The airs and streams renew their joyous tone. — SHELLEY.
6. The winds and waves are always on the side of the ablest navigators. — GIBBON.
7. Good company, lively conversations, and the endearments of friendship fill the mind with great pleasure. — BURKE.
8. The mountain and the squirrel had a quarrel. — EMERSON.
9. Books, paintings, music, horses, dogs, and sporting implements of all kinds are at hand. — IRVING.

CHAPTER XL

COMPOUND PREDICATES

132. It was shown in the last chapter that one subject may consist of two or more simple subjects. In the same way, one predicate may consist of two or more simple predicates; as, —

The rainbow | comes and goes.

The preceding sentence has only one predicate, but the predicate consists of two verbs joined together.

133. Two or more simple predicates having the same subject form one compound predicate.

134. DEFINITION. — **A Simple Sentence is a sentence containing one subject and one predicate, either or both of which may be compound**; as, —

The origin of the mariner's compass | is unknown.
Nutmeg and mace | are much used in cooking.
The Indians | gave a yell and fled to the woods.
The boys and girls | took their books and left the room.

EXERCISE 82

Separate by a vertical line the complete subject and complete predicate of each of the following sentences. Name the verbs that compose each compound predicate, and tell how they are connected: —

1. The hollow branches creaked and swayed.
2. Columbus knelt down and kissed the earth.
3. Idols of wood can neither hear nor feel.
4. They ransacked the house, but found nothing of value.
5. On the green bank I sat and listened long. — DRYDEN.
6. He prayed and felt for all. — GOLDSMITH.
7. I rose and found the shining dew on every buttercup. — STEVENSON.
8. The warrior suddenly paused and bent his face aside. — COOPER.
9. They fought the dogs and killed the cats,
   And bit the babies in the cradles. — R. BROWNING.
10. He shook his head, shouldered the rusty firelock, and with a heart full of trouble and anxiety, turned his steps homeward. — IRVING.

EXERCISE 83

1. Use these groups of nouns and pronouns as compound subjects: —

EXAMPLE: Washington and Jefferson were patriots.

Washington-Jefferson; New York-Chicago; lions-panthers; wheat-cotton; England-Germany; the boys-the girls; wind-rain; George-Charles-Henry; the teacher-her pupils; apples-pears; tea-coffee; you-I; Henry-she; he-I.

2. Use these groups of verbs as compound predicates. The form of the verbs may be changed if desired: —

EXAMPLE: The boys stopped and rested under a tree.

Stop-rest; stumble-fall; shut-lock; rises-empties; mow-rake-haul; run-escape; kindle-cook-eat; feed-harness; turn-flee; whirl-plunge-roar; ebb-flow; take-shoot; start-fish-catch-return; take-open-read.

CHAPTER XLI

CONTRACTED SENTENCES

135. It has been shown that a subject or predicate may be compound; that is, may consist of two or more simple subjects or predicates. In the same way, the object of a transitive verb or of a preposition may consist of two or more simple objects; as, —

I study arithmetic, geography, and grammar.
The earth was beautiful with violets and buttercups.

136. In like manner, we often find two or more **connected modifiers**; as, John Adams was bold, upright, and true. Sentences that contain a compound subject, predicate, object, or modifier may be regarded as formed by contracting two or more sentences into one; as, —

John studies hard
Mary studies hard } = John and Mary study hard.

137. It will be noticed that the contraction is brought about by means of the conjunction, which connects the two subjects, and thus makes it unnecessary to repeat the predicate.

138. Punctuation. — In a series of words or phrases all used in the same way (as in compound subjects, objects, etc.), a comma is usually placed after each word or phrase except the last, unless all the conjunctions are expressed; as, —

Plants, animals, and men must have air to breathe.
The child can creep, skip, walk, or run.
His soul was the home of love and beauty and wisdom.

EXERCISE 84

Combine these groups of sentences by means of conjunctions. Notice how conjunctions make it unnecessary to repeat words. Tell what part of each contracted sentence is compound. Be careful about the punctuation.

EXAMPLE: The moon shines at night. The stars shine at night. = The moon and stars shine at night.

1. James Otis was a Revolutionary leader. Samuel Adams was a Revolutionary leader.

2. A wash basin was sent to Powhatan. A bedstead was sent to Powhatan. A red cloak was sent to Powhatan.

3. The village has a school. The village has three churches. The village has a public hall.

4. Indians have brown skin. Indians have black eyes. Indians have straight, black hair.

5. We visited the home of Washington at Mt. Vernon. We visited the tomb of Washington at Mt. Vernon.

6. The *Half Moon* crossed the Atlantic. The *Half Moon* sailed down the coast. The *Half Moon* entered the present harbor of New York.

7. Much cotton is raised in Georgia. Much cotton is raised in Alabama.

8. Washington was a great man. Washington was a wise man. Washington was a noble man.

9. The noise of the guns made him homesick. The roar of the cannon made him homesick. The smoke of the cannon made him homesick.

10. Captain John Smith traveled through France. Captain John Smith visited Egypt. Captain John Smith fought against the Turks. Captain John Smith founded the Jamestown colony.

EXERCISE 85

Point out the words that form a series in each of the following sentences and explain the use of the commas: —

1. The principal bodies of land are continents, islands, and peninsulas.

2. In Missouri are great fields of corn, oats, and wheat.

3. Condensed vapor forms fog, mist, rain, snow, hail, dew, and frost.

4. Ceylon produces the elephant, buffalo, tiger, elk, wild hog, rabbit, hare, flying fox, and muskrat.

5. Dear, gentle, patient, noble Nell was dead. — Dickens.

6. Philip chased the dog out of the house, across the yard, and into the barn.

EXERCISE 86

Complete these sentences and punctuate them: —

1. The New England states are (six nouns). 2. A grocer sells (five nouns). 3. Farmers (four verbs). 4. (three nouns) were piled on his table. 5. The furniture of the room consisted of (five nouns). 6. The street was lined with (three kinds of trees). 7. My friend is (three adjectives).

EXERCISE 87

Write ten sentences about *Winter Sports* and ten about *Summer Sports*. Make a paragraph of each set.

Other subjects: Skating and Coasting; Fishing and Hunting; Baseball and Football; Sewing and Cooking; The Woods in Summer and in Winter.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is a simple sentence? 2. Make a simple sentence containing (*a*) a compound subject; (*b*) a compound predicate; (*c*) a compound object. 3. Explain the punctuation of *words in a series.* Give an example. 4. Write a sentence containing a series of three or more modifiers; a series of three or more complements. 5. Write a sentence containing three prepositional phrases in a series.

CHAPTER XLII

ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND ELEMENTS

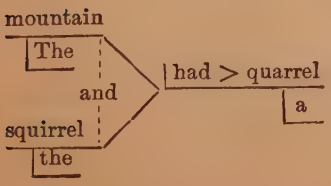
139. Compound subject and compound predicate.

The mountain and the squirrel had a quarrel.

ORAL ANALYSIS

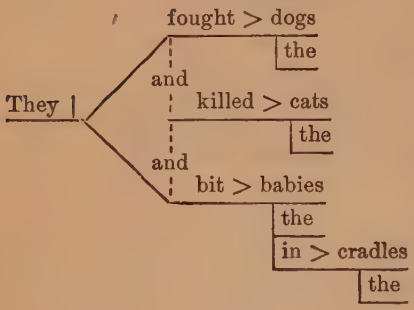
This is a simple declarative sentence; simple, because it has but one subject and one predicate; declarative, because it makes a statement. The complete subject is, *The mountain and the squirrel*, two nouns, joined by the conjunction *and*. The complete predicate is, *had a quarrel*. The simple (unmodified) subject is, *mountain and squirrel*. The simple predicate is *had*, and its object is *quarrel*.

ANALYSIS BY DIAGRAM



A separate line is drawn under each part of the compound subject, and a sentence line under the predicate. Each modifier is then joined to the word it modifies. The conjunction is placed between the two parts of the subject.

They fought the dogs, and killed the cats,
And bit the babies in the cradles.



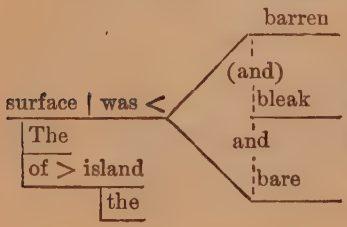
The different parts of a compound predicate are treated like the parts of a compound subject. See the last diagram.

EXERCISE 88

Analyze orally or by diagram the first five sentences in Exercises 81 and 82.

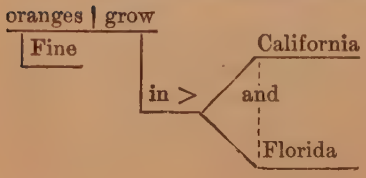
140. Compound complements and compound modifiers are analyzed by diagram in the same manner as compound subjects and compound predicates.

The surface of the island was barren, bleak, and bare.



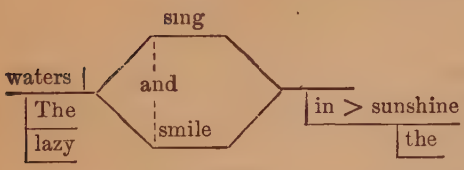
Here *and* is expressed before *bare* and is understood before *bleak*. When a word is supplied to make the analysis complete, it is inclosed in parentheses.

Fine oranges grow in California and Florida.



The preposition *in* has a compound object.

The lazy waters sing and smile in the sunshine.

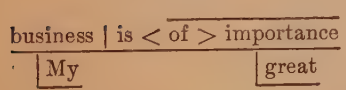


The phrase *in the sunshine* modifies both verbs. To show this, the phrase is joined to the sentence line extended.

Analyze by diagram the sentences in Exercise 85.

141. A prepositional *phrase* is often used in place of an *adjective* as the complement of an intransitive verb.

My business is very important. (Adjective.)
My business is of great importance. (Phrase.)



The line, or *vinculum*, placed over the phrase shows that the words beneath it are used as a part of speech. The pointer (<) shows that the phrase complement modifies the subject. The *vinculum* is placed over any *group* of words used as a noun or a complement.

NOTE. — Hereafter, in order to save space, the articles *a*, *an*, and *the* will be omitted from the printed diagrams. Pupils may be required to include them.

EXERCISE 89

Analyze the following sentences: —

1. The streets of the city were full of soldiers and sailors 2. Pennsylvania produces coal and iron. 3. The boys tramped over hills and through woods. 4. The harbor of New York is wide and deep. 5. On the high tower of the City Hall in Philadelphia stands a statue of William Penn. 6. Many boys and girls of Quebec speak French. 7. Washington was born in a low-roofed but comfortable farmhouse. 8. Careful people work and sleep in well-ventilated rooms. 9. No man is above the law. 10. Your friend is not without his faults.

CHAPTER XLIII

ADJECTIVE PHRASES

142. We have found that a preposition with its object forms a **modifying phrase** that is used like an adjective or an adverb. A preposition does not, of itself, name, assert, or modify. Its special function is to **make modifiers** by linking nouns or pronouns to other words. Our language is thus enriched with an almost endless variety of descriptive and limiting phrases.

143. If a prepositional phrase modifies a noun or pronoun, it is an **adjective phrase**; as, —

The house { of my brother.
on the hill.
in the valley.
beyond the river.
with tall chimneys.

144. DEFINITION. — **An Adjective Phrase is a phrase that does the work of an adjective**; as, I pity a child *without a home*.

EXERCISE 90

Select the adjective phrases and tell the noun or pronoun that each modifies: —

1. Richmond is the capital of Virginia.
2. Our walk in the fields was very pleasant.
3. Mr. Warner's adventure with a bear was very exciting.
4. The pictures on the walls were beautiful.
5. All the windows toward the street were closed.
6. Volunteers from Massachusetts joined the troops from Plymouth.
7. A man without a smiling face must not open a shop.
8. John Gilpin was a citizen of credit and renown.
9. The horizon was of a fine golden tint.
10. The shad is considered a great luxury for the table.

EXERCISE 91

Fill the blanks with adjective phrases : —

1. Tell me a story ——.
2. We saw the top ——.
3. Father bought a box ——.
4. Jackson was President ——.
5. Draw a picture ——.
6. I like a coat ——.
7. Find the length ——.
8. What is the diameter ——?
9. She showed a spirit ——.
10. I am reading a book ——.
11. That was an act ——.
12. The fire —— did great damage.
13. Exercise —— is beneficial.
14. Give me a peck ——.
15. The parks —— are beautiful.
16. Who is that boy ——?
17. Do you see that man ——?
18. Switzerland is the region ——.
19. I pity a child ——.
20. I admire the character ——.

CHAPTER XLIV

ADVERBIAL PHRASES

145. If a prepositional phrase modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, it is an **adverbial phrase** ; as, —

The brook flows { from a spring. through the meadow. over the sand. under the bridges. into the river.

146. DEFINITION. — **An Adverbial Phrase is a phrase that does the work of an adverb** ; as, The lesson was prepared *with care*.

EXERCISE 92

Select the adverbial phrases, and tell the verb or adjective that each modifies : —

1. Dogs seize their prey with their teeth.
2. The breeze comes through my window.
3. Many a true word is spoken in jest.
4. I am very anxious about my brother.

5. The apple tree was brought to this country from Europe.
6. The date-bearing palm abounds in Egypt, Arabia, and Persia.
7. The leaves of the tea plant are picked by hand.
8. We close our store on Saturday afternoons.
9. Rice resembles wheat in size and color.
10. By whom and in what year was Florida discovered?

EXERCISE 93

1. Fill the blanks with adverbial phrases: —

1. The children played ——.
2. Place the dishes ——.
3. Alice threw the ball ——.
4. Beavers live ——.
5. The brook flows ——.
6. Old Mother Hubbard went ——.
7. It rained ——.
8. We need thick clothes ——.
9. War is full ——.
10. I am sorry ——.
11. His coat was lined ——.
12. —— jumped the cat.
13. Fill the basket ——.
14. Put the saddle ——.
15. Hang your hat ——.
16. Some boys are good ——.
17. —— stood a castle.
18. The soldiers fought ——.
19. America was discovered ——.
20. —— was this written?

2. Write five sentences containing adjective phrases, and five containing adverbial phrases.

EXERCISE 94

Pick out the phrases in the following sentences and classify each as adjective or adverbial. Tell what word each phrase modifies: —

1. A stitch in time saves nine.
2. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
3. Beavers feed chiefly on the bark of trees.
4. Animals with lungs cannot live long under water.
5. Camels can live for many days without water.
6. The boys of Boston remonstrated with General Gage.
7. Let music swell the breeze,
   And ring from all the trees.
8. Our voyage to Charleston was quite stormy.
9. William Penn treated the Indians with great kindness.
10. I am under great obligations to you.

CHAPTER XLV

CLAUSES

147. In the following sentences the same thought is expressed in three different ways : —

We need *fearless* men.
We need men *without fear.*
We need men *who are fearless.*

In the first sentence, the noun *men* is modified by the adjective *fearless ;* in the second, by the adjective phrase, *without fear ;* in the third, by the group of words, *who are fearless.*

It is plain that the adjective *fearless*, the adjective phrase, *without fear*, and the group of words, *who are fearless*, do the same kind of work, for each answers the question, *what kind of men?*

The group of words, *who are fearless*, is not a phrase, because it has a subject and a predicate. Such a group of words is called a **clause.**

148. DEFINITION. — **A Clause is a division of a sentence having a subject and predicate** ; as, Days *that are cloudy* are best for fishing.

149. A clause is often used like a part of speech ; as, A boy *who is studious* (= a studious boy) usually succeeds.

EXERCISE 95

Tell whether each italicized group of words in the following sentences is a phrase or a clause, and give a reason.

1. The lady *in the black dress* was Mrs. Robinson.
2. The lady *who wore the black dress* was Mrs. Robinson.

3. Please return the book *that you borrowed.*
4. A dog *that is always barking* does not often bite.
5. The evil *that men do* lives *after them.*
6. The man *who married Pocahontas* was named John Rolfe.
7. People *who are lazy* often take the most pains.
8. We next took the road *that led directly to New Haven.*
9. *When the gate opened*, a procession *of children* filed in.
10. Where is the house *whose chimney was blown down?*
11. I envy a person *who can speak two languages.*
12. *At Mt. Vernon* stands the house *where Washington died.*
13. The wind *of May* is sweet *with the breath of orchards.*
14. We were close to the den *where the little foxes lived.*
15. *After the war ended*, Washington retired *to Mt. Vernon.*

CHAPTER XLVI

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

150. Examine the following sentences : —

I remember the house *where I was born.*
Uneasy lies the head *that wears a crown.*

What house do I remember? What words modify *house?* Like what part of speech are these words used? What head is uneasy? What words modify *head?* How are these words used? Are the groups of words *where I was born* and *that wears a crown* phrases or clauses? Why?

151. A clause that modifies a noun or pronoun is called an **adjective clause.**

152. DEFINITION. — **An Adjective Clause is a clause that does the work of an adjective**; as, A man *who always complains* is never pitied.

EXERCISE 96

Fill the following blanks with adjective clauses : —

1. People —— need a physician. 2. You have not returned the book ——. 3. I have lost all the money ——. 4. Have you tried the skates ——? 5. We took the road ——. 6. Boys —— will not be promoted. 7. Where is that knife ——? 8. We stopped at an old house ——. 9. We all admire men ——. 10. The picture —— is very beautiful.

EXERCISE 97

In the following sentences change the adjective phrases to adjective clauses : —

EXAMPLE : A man of courage = a man who is courageous.

1. We all like a man of courage. 2. I admire a house with large verandas. 3. He owns property of great value. 4. A woman of great energy is needed for this position. 5. We visited the birthplace of Washington. 6. A man in earnest usually succeeds. 7. The people in the gallery could not hear. 8. Do you know the man in the long coat? 9. This is the gentleman from New Orleans. 10. The tree behind the house was blown down. 11. A city on a hill cannot be hid. 12. They admired the vines on the wall.

EXERCISE 98

Find the adjective clauses in the following sentences and tell what noun or pronoun each modifies : —

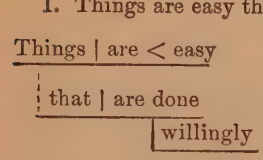
1. The man who hesitates is lost.
2. This is the house that Jack built.
3. Am I the person to whom you refer?
4. I know the place where the strawberries grow.
5. The tiger is a beast that kills without pity.
6. Nobody wants a farm that produces no crops.
7. Is that the man whose block was burned?
8. Blessed is he who has found his work.
9. Evils that cannot be cured must be endured.

10. I remember the lilacs where the robins built.
11. The only jewel which will not decay is knowledge.
12. Plants that live only one season have fibrous roots.
13. Do you remember the day when we drove to Concord?
14. During the first year after he left college, he studied law.
15. The house in which Columbus lived is still standing in Genoa.

ANALYSIS OF ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

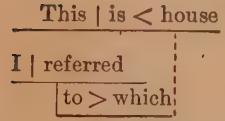
153. An adjective clause is usually introduced by a **pronoun**, such as *who* (*whose*, *whom*), *which*, *that*, or by an **adverb**, such as *where*, *when*, *why*.

1. Things are easy that are done willingly.



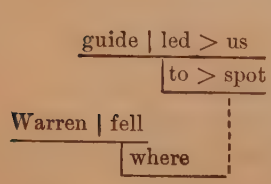
A modifying clause, like a modifying word or phrase, is joined to the word it modifies: when the modifier is a clause, a dotted line is used. The pronoun *that* performs two offices; it is the *subject* of its own clause and also *connects* its own clause with the other.

2. This is the house to which I referred.



The clause, *to which I referred*, modifies *house*. The phrase, *to which*, modifies *referred*, and *which* connects the two clauses.

3. The guide led us to the spot where Warren fell.



The adverb *where* modifies the verb *fell*, and also connects the two clauses. The first office is shown by placing *where* below *fell*, and the second is shown by joining *where* to the noun *spot* in the principal clause. The dependent clause, *where Warren fell*, modifies *spot*.

Analyze the sentences in Exercise 98.

CHAPTER XLVII

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

154. In the following sentences the same thought is expressed in two ways: —

Weeds grow fast *in wet weather.*
Weeds grow fast *when the weather is wet.*

In the first sentence the verb *grow* is modified by the adverbial phrase, *in wet weather;* in the second, precisely the same meaning is expressed by the clause, *when the weather is wet.* It is plain that the clause and the phrase do the same kind of work because they both modify the verb *grow*, and both answer the question, *when do weeds grow fast? When the weather is wet* is, therefore, an **adverbial clause.**

155. A clause that modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb is an adverbial clause.

156. DEFINITION. — **An Adverbial Clause is a clause that does the work of an adverb**; as, The soldier died *where he fell.*

EXERCISE 99

Study the following sentences until you clearly see that the adverbial clause really modifies the verb in the main clause. Notice that the italicized clause shows the time, place, manner, reason, purpose, or condition of the action expressed by the modified verb: —

1. Come *when I call you.* (Come when?)
2. You will find the book *where you left it.* (Will find it where?)
3. Keep your seat *until the car stops.* (Keep your seat how long?)
4. You must do *as I do.* (Must do how?)

5. My cousin arrived *as I was leaving.* (Arrived when?)

6. *As it was very late,* I came away. (Came away why?)

7. Mr. Jones resigned *because his health was poor.* (Resigned for what reason?)

8. George is going to Europe *that he may continue his studies.* (Is going for what purpose?)

9. I will come *if I am invited.* (Will come on what condition?)

EXERCISE 100

In the following sentences change the italicized phrases to adverbial clauses: —

1. We took a drive *after dinner.* 2. Few men are idle *in good times.* 3. *Upon my return* I will read you the letter. 4. Do your errands *before school.* 5. Some boys talked *during Mr. Brown's lecture.* 6. Just *at the close of school* a visitor came. 7. They went to work *before sunrise.* 8. *At the word of command,* the soldiers sprang forward. 9. The fishing is best *on cloudy days.* 10. *On the arrival of the train,* the guests were taken to the park. 11. *With good weather,* the house will soon be finished. 12. *After Mr. Howard's failure,* he went West.

EXERCISE 101

Find the adverbial clauses in the following sentences, and tell whether each expresses time, place, cause, manner, condition, or purpose: —

1. Strike while the iron is hot.
2. Make hay while the sun shines.
3. Be silent that you may hear.
4. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.
5. Cæsar had a fever when he was in Spain.
6. Smooth runs the water where the brook is deep.
7. William Cullen Bryant wrote poetry when he was a boy.
8. The raft went very well until it met a swift current. — DEFOE.
9. Childhood shows the man, as morning shows the day.
— MILTON.

10. The hills are full of marble before the world blooms with statues. — BROOKS.

11. After I had gone to my room, I heard a soft tap at my door. — DICKENS.

12. Just before the clock struck twelve, they lighted the lanterns and started. — HARDY.

13. If a man empties his purse into his head, no man can take it away from him. — FRANKLIN.

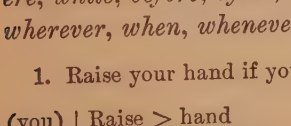
14. My heart leaps up when I behold
A rainbow in the sky. — WORDSWORTH.

15. Three wives sat up in the lighthouse tower,
And they trimmed the lamps as the sun went down.
— KINGSLEY.

ANALYSIS OF ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

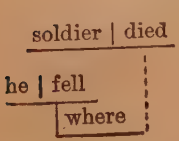
157. An adverbial clause is usually introduced by a **conjunction**, such as *although*, *because*, *if*, *lest*, *than*, *that*, *until*, *ere*, *while*, *before*, *after*, *as*, or by an **adverb**, such as *where*, *wherever*, *when*, *whenever*.

1. Raise your hand if you need anything.



If is not a part of the modifying clause, like *that*, nor a modifier of a word, like *where* (§ 153). It is a pure conjunction and performs but one office, that of connecting two clauses. The clause *you need anything* is an adverbial modifier of the verb *raise*.

2. The soldier died where he fell.



The adverb *where* performs the double office of modifying the verb *fell* and connecting the modifying clause, *he fell*, with the verb *died*.

Analyze ten sentences in Exercise 101.

CHAPTER XLVIII

NOUN CLAUSES

158. These two sentences express the same meaning in different ways: —

William's success is very gratifying.
That William is successful is very gratifying.

In the first sentence, *William's success* is the subject. In the second, the clause *that William is successful* takes the place of *William's success* as the subject. It is plain that the clause is used like a noun since it is the subject of the sentence. Such clauses are called **noun clauses.**

159. DEFINITION. — **A Noun Clause is a clause that does the work of a noun**; as, *That you are mistaken* is very evident.

160. A noun clause is often used as the subject or the object of a verb.

That he failed was unfortunate. (Subject.)
We know *where you are going.* (Object.)

161. A noun clause is sometimes the object of a preposition; as, They came *to* where the young child lay.

162. The conjunction *that* is often omitted before a noun clause; as, I hope (that) you will be there.

EXERCISE 102

Name the noun clause in each sentence, and tell whether it is used as a subject or an object. Name the verb of which it is the subject or object. Ask yourself, *What does he think? What is certain?*

1. He thinks that I am mistaken.
2. That he speaks the truth is certain.
3. Every man took what he wanted.
4. How you do it, is a mystery to me.
5. That Mr. Hanson was elected is now admitted.
6. I dreamed that Greece might still be free. — BYRON.
7. That you have wronged me, doth appear in this.

— SHAKESPEARE.

8. Goliath called out, "Why have you come out in battle array?"
9. The hedge had been closely cut except where a tuft of hazel hung over it. — MITFORD.
10. That the climate of the northern hemisphere has changed, is the opinion of many naturalists. — LYELL.

EXERCISE 103

In the following sentences expand the italicized words into noun clauses: —

1. I predict *a change in the weather.* 2. He promised *an early reply.* 3. Everything indicates *a cold winter.* 4. The jury believed *the man guilty.* 5. We expect *an improvement in business.* 6. I know *your willingness to help.* 7. *Fred's happiness* is evident. 8. He acknowledged *the receipt of the letter.* 9. Who can doubt *the truth of his statement?* 10. *His selfishness* is admitted by all. 11. *The industry of the Swiss* is well known. 12. Do the officers know *his place of concealment?* 13. *The rapid progress of the boy* is remarkable. 14. The laborers demanded *an increase in wages.* 15. Can you tell me *the time of day?*

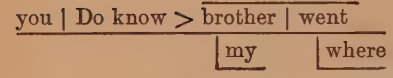
163. ANALYSIS. — Noun clause as subject or object.

That you are wrong, is very plain.

That
you | are < wrong | is < plain
very

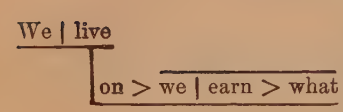
The subject is the noun clause *that you are wrong;* the predicate is *is very plain.* The line drawn above the principal words of the noun clause shows that the clause is used as a part of speech. *That* is placed above the sentence because it does not belong to the subject or the predicate. (For oral analysis see page 109.)

Do you know where my brother went?



The noun clause is the object of the verb *do know*. The adverb *where* is a modifier of *went*.

We live on what we earn.



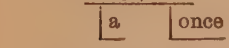
The noun clause is the object of the preposition *on*, and the pronoun *what* is the object of *earn*. The preposition shows the relation of the noun clause to the verb *live*.

Analyze the sentences in Exercise 102.

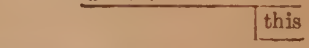
For other uses of noun clauses, see §§ 527–530.

164. ANALYSIS. — Independent words.

There was once a king.



Jonas, take this letter.



Words not entering into the grammatical structure of a sentence are placed on a horizontal line above the sentence. Such words are *interjections*, *vocatives*, the expletive *there*, the conjunction *that* introducing a noun clause, the nominative absolute, etc.

Analyze six sentences in Exercises 16, 58, and 76.

CHAPTER XLIX

DIRECT QUOTATIONS

165. Sentences like the following require special attention: —

1. Henry had a young Indian friend whose name was Keketaw. One day Keketaw said to him, "Let us go into the woods and make a canoe."

2. "Roger Williams," said Grandfather, "did not keep possession of the chair a great while."

What did *Keketaw* say? How are these words inclosed? How are they separated from the rest of the sentence?

In the second selection, what did *Grandfather* say? How are the words divided? What is the first part? The second part? How is each part inclosed? How are the words between punctuated?

166. When the exact words of one person are repeated by another person, those words are said to be **quoted**, and such a group of words is called a **direct quotation**. Quoted words, when written, are inclosed by quotation marks.

167. If the quotation is **divided**, as in the second example above, **both parts** are inclosed by quotation marks.

168. Learn the following rules for punctuating direct quotations: —

1. A direct quotation is inclosed by quotation marks.
2. It begins with a capital letter.
3. It is usually separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.
4. When the quotation is divided, both parts are inclosed by quotation marks, and the words between the parts are usually inclosed by commas.
5. It may be followed by a mark of interrogation (?) or exclamation (!) if required by the sense.

169. A direct quotation containing a subject and predicate is often a noun clause, the object of a "verb of saying."

NOTE. — A noun is sometimes called a *substantive*, and a noun clause, a *substantive clause*.

EXERCISE 104

What words are quoted in the following sentences? Explain each punctuation mark.

1. "I am not a bird, but a mouse," said the bat.
2. Emerson said, "Light is the best policeman."
3. "And now," said honest John Hull to the servants, "bring that box hither."

4. "What makes the lamb love Mary so?"
   The eager children cry.
   "Oh! Mary loves the lamb, you know,"
   The teacher did reply.

5. The miller smiled, and doffed his cap.
   "I earn my bread," quoth he;
   "I love my wife, I love my friend,
   I love my children three."

6. "I would rather be right than be President," is a famous saying of Henry Clay.

EXERCISE 105

Copy the following sentences, using quotation marks and other punctuation marks where they are needed: —

1. We were just leaving when Tom cried they are coming.
2. The grapes are sour said the fox.
3. No other tree is so fine as I am said the pine tree.
4. Be sure my child said the widow to her little daughter that you always do just as you are told.
5. Why did you not lay up food during the summer inquired the ant of the grasshopper.
6. To-night thought the fox I will visit farmer Turner's chicken coop.
7. There is no school to-day said Karl Gerber to his brother.
8. Admiral Dewey said of his sailors their hearts are as stout as their ships.
9. But it is so delightful to swim about in the water said the duckling.

10. Once upon a time a little leaf was heard to sigh and cry as leaves often do when a gentle wind is about and the twig said what is the matter little leaf and the leaf said the wind has just told me that one day it would pull me off and throw me down on the ground to die

CHAPTER L

INDIRECT QUOTATIONS

170. Notice whether each of these quotations gives the **exact words**, or merely the **thought**: —

1. Robert exclaimed, "I am ready."
2. Robert exclaimed that he was ready.
3. Margaret said, "I will come."
4. Margaret said (that) she would come.
5. Father asked me, "Were you at school to-day?"
6. Father asked me if I was at school to-day.

Sometimes a quotation gives the **exact words** of another person, as in sentences 1, 3, and 5; sometimes it gives the **thought**, but not the exact words, as in sentences 2, 4, and 6. In the first kind the quotation is called **direct**; in the second kind it is called **indirect**.

171. A quotation that gives the thought, but not the exact words, is called an **Indirect Quotation**.

172. An indirect quotation (1) is not inclosed by quotation marks, (2) does not begin with a capital letter, (3) is not separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma, and (4) is not followed by an interrogation mark, even when a question is implied.

173. Indirect **statements** are usually introduced by *that*; indirect **questions** are introduced by *who*, *which*, *what*, *whether*, *where*, *when*, *why*, *if*, or some other interrogative word.

That is often omitted before an indirect quotation.

EXERCISE 106

First tell whether each quotation is direct or indirect; then copy and punctuate : —

1. Where do you live asked the stranger of Alice.
2. I think a great deal of my dog said Joe.
3. Don't fail boys said Matthew to come over this evening.
4. We asked John where he was going so early.
5. Get ready for the Indians cried Standish to his men.
6. The paper says that the weather will be colder to-morrow.
7. I asked Grace if she would lend me a pencil.
8. It is very nice to have a wash basin said Captain John Smith to Powhatan.
9. O Grandfather cried little Alice tell us some more stories about your chair.
10. Grandfather proceeded to say that when Master Cheever died he bequeathed the chair to the most learned man that was educated at his school.

Change the quotations in the above sentences from direct to indirect, or from indirect to direct.

EXAMPLE: The stranger asked Alice where she lived.

CHAPTER LI

INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT CLAUSES

174. Examine the following sentence : —

Lock the stable before the horse is stolen.

The above sentence consists of two clauses, (1) *Lock the stable*, and (2) *before the horse is stolen*.

The first clause expresses the **main thought** of the sentence; it is complete in itself, and is not dependent on any other part of the sentence. Such a clause is called an **independent** or **principal clause.**

The second clause is **incomplete** when standing alone; it is not intended to express an independent thought, but merely shows *when* the act of locking the stable is to be performed, and thus modifies the verb *lock* like an adverb. It is a **dependent** or **subordinate clause.**

175. DEFINITIONS.—**An Independent Clause is a clause that expresses a complete thought and is not used like a part of speech**; as, *I will come* when you send for me.

A Dependent Clause is a clause that is used like a part of speech; that is, like a noun, an adjective, or an adverb; as, I will come *when you send for me.*

NOTE. — A dependent clause is usually defined as a clause "that does not make sense by itself." This definition is evidently incorrect. For example, in the sentence, *He says he is ready*, the words *he is ready* make sense, and yet they form a dependent clause, the object of the verb *says*. The independent clause is the whole sentence.

EXERCISE 107

1. Pick out the independent and the dependent clauses in the following sentences. Tell how each dependent clause is used: —

1. A liar is not believed when he tells the truth.
2. Catch the bear before you sell his skin.
3. Health is not valued until sickness comes.
4. A man that always complains is never pitied.
5. Count not your chickens before they are hatched.
6. Faults are thick where love is thin.
7. It is said that barking dogs seldom bite.
8. If you follow the river, you will get to the sea.
9. He who runs fast will not run long.
10. Where there is smoke, there is always fire.
11. If wishes were horses, beggars could ride.
12. Climb not too high lest the fall be greater.
13. Never put off till to-morrow what you could do to-day.
14. Though the sun shines, leave not your cloak at home.
15. When the cat's away, the mice will play.

2. Find the independent and dependent clauses in Exercises 98, 101, and 102.

CHAPTER LII

COMPOUND SENTENCES

176. A sentence may consist of two or more independent clauses.

1. Congress | passed the bill, *and* the President | signed it.
2. Brag | is a good dog, *but* Holdfast | is better.
3. He | has lost his knife *or* some one | has taken it.
4. An hour | passed on; the Turk | awoke.

In sentence 1, what does the conjunction *and* connect? If *and* is omitted, how many sentences do we have? Does each clause make an independent statement? What two statements are found in sentence 2? In sentence 3? What two statements do you see in sentence 4? Are they connected by a conjunction?

Sentences like those above, that contain two or more independent clauses, are called **compound sentences.**

177. The clauses of a compound sentence are usually connected by a conjunction, but sometimes the conjunction is omitted, as in sentence 4.

178. DEFINITION. — **A Compound Sentence is a sentence that contains two or more independent clauses**; as, *God made the country*, and *man made the town.*

179. A compound sentence may be declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory; as, —

He feared trouble, and trouble came. (Declarative.)
Where is John, and what is he doing? (Interrogative.)
Wear the old coat, and buy the new book. (Imperative.)
How bright the stars are, and how they twinkle! (Exclamatory.)

180. Remember that a simple sentence consists of one subject and one predicate, either or both of which may be compound.

Cows and sheep | were grazing in the field.

A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses, each of which has one subject and one predicate.

The Americans | resisted, *and* the Stamp Act | was repealed.

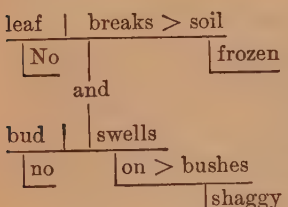
EXERCISE 108

Copy these compound sentences, draw a line under each conjunction, and separate the subject and predicate of each clause : —

1. I listened, but I could not hear. — BYRON.
2. The night is dark, and I am far from home. — NEWMAN.
3. The shallows murmur, but the deeps are dumb. — RALEIGH.
4. The piper advanced, and the children followed. — BROWNING.
5. Hunger is the best sauce, and fatigue is the best pillow. — PROVERB.
6. Take thy beak from out my heart, and take thy form from off my door. — POE.
7. Experience keeps a dear school, but fools will learn in no other. — FRANKLIN.
8. The new moon hung in the sky, and the sun was low in the west. — T. B. ALDRICH.
9. A gem is not polished without rubbing, nor is a man perfected ithout trials. — PROVERB.
10. Her court was pure ; her life serene ;
    God gave her peace ; her land reposed. — TENNYSON.
11. Laugh, and the world laughs with you. — WILCOX.
12. For weeks the clouds had raked the hills
    And vexed the vales with raining,
    And all the woods were sad with mist,
    And all the brooks complaining. — WHITTIER.

181. ANALYSIS. — Compound sentences.

No leaf breaks the frozen soil, and no bud swells on the shaggy bushes.



This is a compound declarative sentence; compound, because it consists of two independent clauses; declarative, because it makes statements. The first clause is, *No leaf breaks the soil;* the second clause is, *no bud swells on the shaggy bushes.* The clauses are connected by the conjunction *and.* Since the clauses are of equal rank and neither is a modifier of the other, the connecting line is drawn between the two sentence lines. The connecting line is not dotted, because neither clause is a modifier of the other. Proceed with the analysis of each clause as if it were a simple sentence.

182. Punctuation. — The clauses of a compound sentence are usually separated by a comma; but when they are not closely connected in thought, or commas are used in either clause, they may be separated by a semicolon.

CHAPTER LIII

COMPLEX SENTENCES

183. A sentence may consist of one independent and one or more dependent clauses.

Every person likes boys who are truthful.
Theresa waited until Sarah came.

How many clauses does the first sentence contain? Name them. What kind of *boys* are spoken of? What word does the clause *who are truthful* modify? Which is independent? Which is dependent?

How long did Theresa wait? What word does the

clause *until Sarah came* modify? Which clause is independent? Which is dependent?

The clause *who are truthful* modifies the noun *boys;* the clause *until Sarah came* modifies the verb *waited.* We have already learned that such clauses are **dependent.**

Sentences like the foregoing are called **complex sentences.**

184. DEFINITIONS. — **A Complex Sentence is a sentence that contains a single independent clause and one or more dependent clauses**; as, The flowers have eyes *that look at me.*

A Compound Complex Sentence is a compound sentence that contains one or more dependent clauses; as, I envy no man *who knows more than myself,* but I pity them *that know less.*

185. Remember that a compound sentence is made up of two or more independent clauses; a complex sentence contains one independent and at least one dependent clause.

The analysis of complex sentences is explained in §§ 153, 157, and 163. All the sentences in Exercises 98, 99, 101, 102, 104, 105, 106, 107, are complex.

186. Punctuation. — A dependent clause is separated from its main clause by a comma, when transposed or not closely connected with it in thought.

EXERCISE 109

Tell which of the following sentences are simple and which complex. Give a reason for each answer: —

1. He smiled when he saw me.
2. A fair face may hide a foul heart.
3. Hold the horse until I return.
4. Burn not your house to frighten away mice.
5. We must go now, as it is already late.
6. Drowning men catch at straws.

7. Men work that they may live.
8. The longest way round is the shortest way home.
9. He is a fine man although he is poor.
10. Inventors make many efforts before they succeed.
11. Unless you put on your coat, you will take cold.
12. We find the most weeds where the soil is richest.
13. While you were away, three strangers called.
14. Nathan failed because he did not study.
15. A man that lives in a glass house should not throw stones.

EXERCISE 110

Study each of the following sentences and tell whether it is simple, complex, or compound, and give a reason for your opinion: —

1. The bloom was on the clover, and the blue was in the sky. — RILEY.
2. Smooth runs the water where the brook is deep. — SHAKESPEARE.
3. Irving's books were sold by hundreds of thousands. — THACKERAY.
4. War will never cease while the field of battle is the field of glory. — CHANNING.
5. Wellington became Prime Minister in 1827; Jackson, President in 1829. — PARTON.
6. Then I swung my lasso and sent it whistling over his head. — THOMPSON-SETON.
7. The ocean yielded up her mighty whales that Mr. Gathergold might sell their oil. — HAWTHORNE.
8. We easily forget our faults when they are known only to ourselves. — PROVERB.
9. Those who have a mind to correspond with me may direct their letters to the *Spectator*. — ADDISON.
10. The first gray of the morning was now coming over the waters. — PRESCOTT.
11. The door opened and Theron saw the priest standing in the doorway, with an uplifted hand. — FREDERIC.
12. The sky was clear, the winds had gone down, and the full moon was setting radiantly in the west. — POE.

1. Analysis of simple sentences.

Tell (1) the kind of sentence and why; (2) the complete subject and complete predicate; (3) the simple subject and simple predicate, and the modifiers of each; (4) the object or attribute complement and its modifiers (if any).

2. Analysis of compound sentences.

(1) Tell the kind of sentence and why; (2) give the clauses; (3) name the conjunctions (if any); (4) analyze each clause as if it were a simple sentence.

3. Analysis of complex sentences.

(1) Tell the kind of sentence and why; (2) give the principal clause and the dependent clause or clauses; (3) explain the use of each dependent clause as a noun, an adjective or an adverb, naming each connective; (4) analyze each clause.

NOTE. — When pupils have gained facility in oral analysis, they need not be required to analyze the separate clauses.

4. Analysis of noun clauses.

When the complex sentence contains a noun clause, it is usually best to analyze the sentence as a whole, mentioning the noun clause as subject, object, or attribute complement.

EXAMPLE. — Lights in the kitchen windows showed that the women were astir about breakfast.

The simple subject is *lights* modified by the adjective phrase *in the kitchen windows*. The simple predicate is *showed*, and its object is the noun clause *that the women were astir about breakfast*. The connective is the conjunction *that*. The simple subject of the noun clause is *women* modified by *the;* the simple predicate is *were*, completed by the predicate adjective *astir*, which is modified by the adverbial phrase *about breakfast*.

5. Analysis of compound complex sentences.

(1) Give the independent clauses; (2) give the dependent clause or clauses; (3) explain the use of each dependent clause, naming the connective.

EXERCISE 111

Analyze orally (1) the sentences in Exercise 110; (2) the sentences in Exercise 73; (3) the first ten sentences in Exercise 98.

CHAPTER LIV

ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES

187. We often find sentences that are **correct, but not grammatically complete.** Their meaning is plain enough, but we cannot analyze them without supplying words which the author has omitted. Good writers do not waste time with words that the mind readily supplies. Especially in spoken language, where the looks, tones, and gestures of the speaker all help to convey his meaning, we readily understand language which it might puzzle us to analyze. A person asks, "When did you return?" and he knows that the answer "Yesterday" means "I returned yesterday." Wellington's famous order at Waterloo, "Up, guards, and at them," was more forcible than "Get up, guards, and go at them" would have been.

188. The omission of a word or words necessary to the grammatical completeness of a sentence is called **ellipsis,** which means **a leaving out.** When we supply the omitted words in a sentence, it is not for the purpose of correcting the language, but for the purpose of analyzing it.

EXERCISE 112

Study the following sentences. Tell why the parts in parentheses are not necessary to the sense: —

1. That bicycle is my brother's (bicycle).
2. In London we visited St. Paul's (church).
3. It is now half-past seven (o'clock).

4. Is to-day the fourteenth (day of the month)?
5. Here is the knife (that) you lost.
6. (Will you) have some water? No, (I) thank you.
7. Anxious men and (anxious) women lined the shore.
8. He is not so tall as I (am tall).
9. Cuba is larger than Porto Rico (is large).
10. Come as soon as (it is) possible (to come).
11. O (I wish) that I had wings like a dove!
12. Nobody likes him better than I (like him).
13. I like you better than (I like) him.
14. I have not traveled so much as you (have traveled).
15. They help first one and then (they help) the other.
16. Did you walk as far as you intended (to walk)?
17. I can write as well as you (can write).
18. Some one must help; I don't care who (helps).
19. Where is Halifax? (Halifax is) in Nova Scotia.
20. (You are) back again, I see. Where (do you go) next?
21. He is extravagant, if (he is) not dishonest.
22. He refused, and why (did he refuse)?
23. You look as (you would look) if you were frightened.
24. (I wish you) good morning, madam.
25. Though (he is) honest, he is always in trouble.
26. It is just as cold as (it) ever (was cold).
27. He left the moment (at which) he saw me.
28. I should be glad to help you (if I could).
29. This is the way (that) I long have sought.
30. Lee was a Virginian; Davis (was) a Mississippian.

EXERCISE 113

What words would you supply in analyzing the following sentences? —

1. This report, if true, will change our plans.
2. I am sure you are mistaken.
3. She does her work well, though somewhat slowly.
4. O that summer would come!
5. They are more nice than wise.
6. He has little money, but he has something better.
7. You remained abroad longer than I.

8. I have just sent Fred to the baker's.
9. Exercise is a better remedy than medicine.
10. I cannot walk so fast as you.
11. When did you arrive? At seven?
12. Though cast down, he is not destroyed.
13. The dogs do the hunting; the men, the killing.
14. That is the man I was looking for.
15. It rained the day we started.
16. He started Tuesday, not Monday.
17. This man fell from a house while painting it.
18. You think I am pretending, don't you?
19. He will leave, but I do not know when.
20. I am not acquainted with him, but you are.
21. He is an important character, he thinks.
22. She acts as if she were sleepy.
23. Though only twelve, she is in the eighth grade.
24. England is proud of her navy; Germany, of her army.
25. Thou madest man, he knows not why;
    He thinks he was not made to die. — TENNYSON.
26. Stone walls do not a prison make,
    Nor iron bars a cage. — LOVELACE.
27. Take not away the life you cannot give. — DRYDEN.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How are prepositional phrases used? 2. Define adjective phrase. Give an example. 3. Define adverbial phrase. Give an example. 4. What is a clause? 5. How does a clause differ from a phrase? 6. Define (*a*) adjective clause, (*b*) adverbial clause, (*c*) noun clause. Give an example of each. 7. What is a direct quotation? 8. Give five rules for punctuating direct quotations. 9. Copy and punctuate the following: *Hold on tight said he and do not use the whip.* 10. What is an indirect quotation? Give an example. 11. What is an independent clause? A dependent clause? 12. How is a dependent clause always used? Give an example. 13. What is a compound sentence? Give an example. 14. What is a complex sentence? Give an example. 15. How do compound and complex sentences differ? 16. Define ellipsis. 17. What ellipsis in the following sentence? *While slow, the boy is not dull.*

PART II

CHAPTER LV

SPECIAL CLASSES OF NOUNS

189. When we say that a man is *good*, or *honest*, or *strong*, or *active*, we describe him by mentioning one of his **qualities**. These qualities have names; as, *goodness*, *honesty*, *strength*, *activity*. Such names are called **abstract nouns**. Nouns that are not abstract are called **concrete nouns**.

As a general rule, names of things that can be perceived by the senses are **concrete**; names of things that cannot be perceived by the senses are **abstract** (§ 35).

190. An abstract noun is usually the name of (1) a **quality**; as, *goodness*, *bravery*, *wisdom;* (2) a **condition**; as, *childhood*, *poverty*, *friendship;* or (3) an **action**; as, *reading*, *addition*, *advice*.

191. DEFINITION. — **An Abstract Noun is the name of a quality, condition, or action, considered apart from the object to which it belongs**; as, *cruelty*, *sickness*, *pressure*.

Most abstract nouns are derived from other words; as, *purity* from *pure*.

EXERCISE 114

Make an abstract noun: —

1. From each of the following *adjectives* by adding the ending *-ness* or *-ty* (*-ity*). Be careful about the spelling.

In adding the ending *-ness*, change the final *y* to *i*; as, *lazy, laziness.* Drop final *e* before *-ity* and keep it before *-ness;* as, *secure, security; fine, fineness.*

lazy	lively	great	severe	empty
ugly	sincere	feeble	lonely	sleepy
good	real	weary	immense	civil
wide	fatal	pure	gentle	cruel

Use the new nouns in short sentences.

2. From each of the following *nouns* by adding the ending *-ship* or *-hood:*—

child	fellow	man	leader	widow
author	boy	friend	priest	brother

3. From the following *verbs* by adding the ending *-ion.* Drop final *e* before *-ion.*

instruct	subtract	narrate	assert	express
act	punctuate	nominate	convict	separate

4. From the following miscellaneous words:—

Round, regular, wise, foolish, curious, stupid, high, silent, prove, resist, heal, grow, weigh, true, strong, fragrant, grieve, false, please, steal, accurate, simple, master, thieve, speak, slow, forbear, think.

CHAPTER LVI

COLLECTIVE NOUNS

192. There may be a hundred sheep in one *flock*, or a thousand soldiers in one *regiment.* Words like *flock* and *regiment*, which denote a number of persons or things considered as a single group, are called **collective nouns.**

193. DEFINITION.—**A Collective Noun is one that denotes a group of persons or things considered as one whole;** as, Napoleon's *army* was defeated at Waterloo.

EXERCISE 115

Fill each of the following blanks with an appropriate collective noun : —

1. —— of birds. 2. —— of fish. 3. —— of people. 4. —— of ships. 5. —— of wolves. 6. —— of soldiers. 7. —— of cattle. 8. —— of chickens. 9. —— of sailors. 10. —— of oxen. 11. —— of thieves. 12. —— of ball players. 13. —— of grapes. 14. —— has been appointed to consider the matter. 15. —— found the prisoner guilty.

EXERCISE 116

Find the abstract and collective nouns in the following sentences, and give reasons for your classification : —

1. A company of soldiers dispersed the crowd.
2. A French fleet assisted Washington at Yorktown.
3. Vast meadows gave pasture to flocks without number.
4. The congregation listened attentively to the sermon.
5. Gabriel's words filled Evangeline's heart with gladness.
6. The ways of wisdom are ways of pleasantness.
7. A troop of strange children ran at his heels.
8. Jackson united roughness of manner with firmness of character.
9. The crowd on the shore beheld these things with anguish.
10. Halfway down to the shore Evangeline waited in silence.
11. Van Winkle's wife was continually talking about his idleness.
12. At the foot of the mountains is a city of great antiquity.
13. The height of mountains is measured from the level of the sea.
14. The streets of some cities are noted for their crookedness and irregularity.
15. The toughness of ash wood renders it useful in making carriage wheels.
16. A band of exiles moored their bark on the wild New England shore.

EXERCISE 117

In the above sentences find at least ten adjective phrases, ten adverbial phrases, and eight nouns used as objects of transitive verbs.

CHAPTER LVII

INFLECTION

194. When we add *s* to *book*, or *ed* to *play*, we do not make an entirely new word, but we simply indicate some **change** in its meaning or use by a change in the form of the word.

Study the pairs of italicized words below : —

Give the visitor a *book.*	Put away your *books.*
Fred sits here.	This is *Fred's* desk.
He struck the horse.	The horse kicked *him.*
Henry is *tall.*	Henry is *taller* than George.
It *rains* to-day.	It *rained* yesterday.
He is a *count.*	She is a *countess.*

It will be seen that each change in form indicates some change in meaning or use.

Book denotes one; *books*, more than one.

Fred is the subject of a verb; *Fred's* denotes possession.

He is the subject of a verb; *him* is the object of a verb.

Tall denotes a quality; *taller* denotes a higher degree of the quality.

Rains denotes an action in present time; *rained*, in past time.

Count denotes a male; *countess*, a female.

195. When a word changes its form to indicate some change in its meaning or use, the word is said to be **inflected.**

196. DEFINITION. — **Inflection is a change in the form of a word to indicate some change in its meaning or use**; as, *dog, dogs; he, him.*

INFLECTION OF NOUNS

197. Nouns may be inflected, or changed in form, (1) to indicate whether they refer to **one or more than one** (number); (2) to show the **sex** of the person or things which they name (gender); (3) to show their **relation** to some other word or words in the sentence (case).

In English these distinctions are often shown without inflection. For example, whether we say "The cat killed the rat" or "The rat killed the cat," the **forms** of the nouns are the same, but their **uses** in the two sentences are very different. The change in use is shown by the **order** in which the words are arranged, rather than by a change in their form.

CHAPTER LVIII

NUMBER

198. Notice the form of each of the italicized words: —

1. The *tree* is tall.
2. The *trees* are tall.
3. *I* studied hard.
4. *We* studied hard.

Each of the words, *tree*, *trees*, *I*, *we*, shows by its **form** whether it denotes one person or thing, or more than one. Each word shows us something about the number of persons or things referred to. Such an inflection is called **number.**

199. DEFINITION. — **Number is a change in the form or use of a noun or pronoun to denote one or more than one**; as, *book*, *books*: *I*, *we*.

Nouns that denote one person or thing are in the **singular number**; as, *book*, *box*, *city*, *shelf*, *child*.

Nouns that denote more than one person or thing are in **the plural number**; as, *books*, *boxes*, *cities*, *shelves*, *children*.

FORMATION OF PLURALS

200. GENERAL RULE. — **The plural of most nouns is formed by adding *s* or *es* to the singular**; as, *tree, trees; basket, baskets; church, churches.*

NOTE. — When the singular ends with a sound that does not easily unite with *s*, *es* is added, thus forming another syllable; as, *fox, foxes, bench, benches.*

201. Exceptions to the general rule.

1. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a *consonant*, change the *y* to *i* and add *es*; as, *lady, ladies; city, cities.*

NOTE. — Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a *vowel* (*a, e, i, o, u*) follow the general rule and add *s only*; as, *chimney, chimneys; essay, essays.*

2. Eleven nouns ending in *f*, and three ending in *fe*, change the *f* to *v*, and have plurals in *ves*; as, *leaf, leaves; knife, knives.*

The fourteen nouns that change *f* to *v* are: —

Beef, calf, elf, half, knife, leaf, life, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, thief, wife, wolf.

NOTE. — Other nouns ending in *f* or *fe*, form the plural regularly by adding *s*; as, *chief, chiefs; gulf, gulfs; safe, safes.*

3. If the noun ends in *o* preceded by a consonant, the plural is generally formed by adding *es*. The most important nouns of this class are these: —

buffalo	hero	mulatto	tomato
cargo	mosquito	negro	tornado
echo	motto	potato	volcano

4. But **some** nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant, and **all** those ending in *o* preceded by a vowel, add *s* only. The most important are these: —

alto	domino	piano	folio
banjo	dynamo	solo	cameo
canto	halo	bamboo	curio
chromo	memento	cuckoo	portfolio

5. A few nouns form the plural not by adding *s* or *es*, but by changing the vowel sound of the word itself; as, *foot*, *feet*; *goose*, *geese*; *man*, *men*; *mouse*, *mice*; *tooth*, *teeth*; *woman*, *women*.

6. In early English, a plural in *en* was common, of which a few examples remain; as, *brother*, *brethren*; *child*, *children*; *cow*, *kine* (*cows*); *ox*, *oxen*.

7. A few nouns have the same form for the singular and the plural; as, *deer*, *sheep*, *trout*, etc.

8. Some nouns, used in expressing number, may be singular in **form**, even when plural in **sense**; as, *dozen*, *gross*, *pair*, *score*, *yoke*.

EXERCISE 118

Write out the singular and the plural of the following nouns: —

clock	picture	women	fly
church	brush	belief	shoe
box	victory	circus	inkstand
lady	portfolio	wolf	recess
chimney	toy	monkey	match
safe	sigh	story	beauty
wife	half	stitch	daisy
roof	potato	business	delay
tooth	fife	wish	proof
child	foot	solo	army
hero	enemy	eye	key
sheep	ox	guy	piano

Any school reader will furnish additional exercises if they are needed.

CHAPTER LIX

IRREGULAR PLURALS

202. Some nouns have two forms in the plural, each with a somewhat different meaning.

brother	brothers, *of same family.* brethren, *of same society.*
cloth	cloths, *kinds of cloth.* clothes, *garments.*
die	dies, *stamps for coining.* dice, *small cubes for gaming.*
genius	geniuses, *men of talent.* genii, *spirits.*
index	indexes, *tables of contents.* indices, *algebraic signs.*

203. Some nouns, borrowed from foreign languages, retain their foreign plurals.

LATIN		GREEK	
Singular **um**	*Plural* **a**	*Singular* **is**	*Plural* **es**
addendum	addenda	analysis	analyses
datum	data	antithesis	antitheses
dictum	dicta	basis	bases
erratum	errata	crisis	crises
memorandum	memoranda	ellipsis	ellipses
stratum	strata	hypothesis	hypotheses
		oasis	oases
Singular **us**	*Plural* **i**	parenthesis	parentheses
alumnus	alumni	thesis	theses
fungus	fungi		
radius	radii	*Singular* **on**	*Plural* **a**
terminus	termini	criterion	criteria
focus	foci	phenomenon	phenomena

Latin		French	
Singular **a**	*Plural* **æ**	beau	beaux
alumna	alumnæ	bureau	bureaux
formula	formulæ	chateau	chateaux
larva	larvæ	monsieur	messieurs
nebula	nebulæ	madam *or*	madams *or*
vertebra	vertebræ	madame	mesdames

Miscellaneous		Hebrew	
genus	genera	cherub	cherubim
axis	axes	seraph	seraphim
appendix	appendices		

Some of the above nouns have also regular English plurals in *s* or *es*. There is a growing tendency to use the English plurals. If in doubt about the plural of a noun, the best way is to consult a dictionary.

PLURAL OF COMPOUND NOUNS

204. A noun formed by uniting two or more words into one is called a **compound noun**; as, *blackboard*, *hilltop*, *father-in-law*, *smash-up*.

Nearly all compound nouns take the plural sign at the end.

The following exceptions should be noted: —

1. When the compound consists of a noun and a modifying word or phrase, separated by hyphens, the principal word is usually changed and not the modifier; as, *brothers-in-law*; *lookers-on*; *men-of-war*; *passers-by*; *commanders-in-chief*.

2. A few words composed of two nouns make both nouns plural; as, *knights-templars*; *men-servants*.

3. Compound nouns ending in *man* form their plurals in *men*; as, *fisherman*, *fishermen*; *Frenchman*, *Frenchmen*. But some nouns ending in *man* are *not* compounds, and hence form the plural in *s*; as, *Germans*, *Romans*.

4. Proper names, preceded by a title, — as, *Mr. Brown; Mrs. Smith; Miss Long*, — form the plural as follows: *The Messrs. Brown; the Mrs. Smiths; the Misses Long.* But we may also speak of *the two Mr. Browns; the two Miss Longs.*

5. Letters, figures, signs, and words regarded as things, are made plural by adding an apostrophe and *s*; as, Dot your *i*'s; use *and*'s instead of &'s; your *k*'s look like *h*'s.

205. Some nouns have no plural: —

1. Abstract nouns; as, *purity, happiness.*

When words usually abstract are used in the plural, they become concrete nouns. For example, *youths* means *young persons; hardships* means *hard experiences; beauties* means *beautiful persons* or *things.*

2. Material nouns; as, *wood, iron, clay.*

When material nouns are used in the plural, they denote different kinds; as, *sugars, wines, linens,* or articles made of the material; as, *glasses, papers, rubbers.*

3. A few names of diseases; as, *gout, rheumatism.*

4. Several names of sciences and natural forces; as, *geometry, geology, electricity.*

206. Some nouns are plural in form, but singular in sense: —

1. Names of arts and sciences ending in *ics*; as, *athletics, gymnastics, mathematics, ethics, physics, civics.*

2. A few other nouns; as, *news, means, gallows, tidings, odds, measles.*

207. Some nouns are generally used in the plural because their meaning implies plurality.

1. Articles which consist of more than one part; as, *scissors, tongs, shears, fetters, trousers, scales.*

2. Miscellaneous words: *ashes, annals, dregs, thanks, billiards, victuals, mumps, vespers.*

EXERCISE 119

Form the plurals of the following nouns: —

Flagstaff, turncoat, axis, vertebra, penny, datum, parenthesis, round-up, alumnus, walk-over, man-eater, formula, beau, mother-in-law, man-servant, fisherman, Englishman, German, 5, a, intake, Miss Smith, Mrs. Brown, Mr. Newman, quarter-deck, handful, brother, terminus, index, merchant-man, workman.

Explain any peculiarity in the use or meaning of these plurals: *civics, news, scissors, ashes, nickels, coppers, paints, teas, youths, dregs, shears, odds, measles, follies.*

EXERCISE 120

Tell whether each noun is singular or plural. Explain how the plural of each noun is formed, and any peculiarity in its use.

1. Ducks and geese are web-footed birds.
2. Violent prisoners are sometimes placed in irons.
3. The field mouse is timid, gentle, and easily tamed.
4. The farmers assembled with their wives and children.
5. The cow, the sheep, and the goat are cud-chewing animals.
6. Measles has kept many children from school.
7. The alumni of the school will meet Thursday evening.
8. Man is the only animal that stands and walks erect.
9. It required four yoke of oxen to move the heavy load.
10. In the city of Washington are many statues of national heroes.
11. Our jaws are supplied with teeth that we may be able to bite and chew our food.
12. Mackerel are salted and packed in barrels and sent to different parts of the world.
13. It is not easy to find out when fishes are sleeping, because their eyes are always open.
14. We have joints at the elbow, the knee, the wrist, the ankle, and in the fingers and toes.

EXERCISE 121

In Exercise 120 find the prepositional phrases, the complements, and the dependent clauses, and explain their use.

CHAPTER LX

GENDER

208. Beings having animal life are of either the **male** or the **female** sex.

Tell whether the following nouns and pronouns denote males or females: *boy*, *sister*, *man*, *niece*, *brother*. *father king*, *aunt*, *queen*, *lady*, *uncle*, *he*, *she*, *him*, *her*.

Each of the above nouns and pronouns shows by its form whether it denotes a male being or a female being. This distinction in regard to sex is called **gender.**

209. A noun or pronoun denoting a **male** being is said to be of the **masculine gender**; as, *man*, *emperor*, *he*, *his*.

210. A noun or pronoun denoting a **female** being is said to be of the **feminine gender**; as, *woman*, *empress*, *she*, *her*.

A noun or pronoun denoting a thing that is **neither male nor female** is said to be of the **neuter gender**; as, *book*, *chair*, *tree*, *it*.

Many nouns have only **one form** for males and females. For convenience, we say that such nouns are of **common gender**; as, *parent*, *child*, *friend*, *they*.

211. DEFINITION. — **Gender is a change in the form or use of a noun or pronoun to denote sex**; as, *lion*, *lioness*; *him*, *her*.

212. There are *three ways* of showing gender in English nouns.

1. By using different words; as, *lord*, *lady*.
2. By using different endings; as, *patron*, *patroness*.
3. By prefixing words; as, *he-goat*, *she-goat*.

1. BY USING DIFFERENT WORDS

Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
boy	girl	father	mother	nephew	niece
brother	sister	gander	goose	stag	hind
buck	doe	hart	roe	uncle	aunt
drake	duck	king	queen	wizard	witch

2. BY USING DIFFERENT ENDINGS

(*a*) By adding *ess* to the masculine without other change. Form feminines by adding *ess* to these masculines ; as, *author*, *author-ess:* —

Author, baron, deacon, count, heir, host, Jew, lion, patron, peer.

(*b*) By adding *ess* and omitting the vowel of the last syllable of the masculine. Form feminines from the following masculines ; as, *actor*, *act-ress:* —

Actor, enchanter, hunter, negro, preceptor, songster, tiger, waiter.

(*c*) By adding *ess* to the masculine in a less regular way.

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
abbot	abbess	lad	lass
duke	duchess	master	mistress
emperor	empress	murderer	murderess

(*d*) By using foreign endings.

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
administrator	administratrix	hero	heroine
beau	belle	signor	signora
czar	czarina	sultan	sultana

3. BY PREFIXING WORDS

Masculine	Feminine	Masculine	Feminine
he-goat	she-goat	man-servant	maid-servant

We do not always use the feminine forms of the above nouns in referring to females. The nouns *actor*, *author*, *poet*, may refer to *women* as well as *men*.

CHAPTER LXI

CASE

213. Notice how the word *boy* is used in the following sentences : —

1. The boy writes well.
2. The boy's book is lost.
3. The teacher helps the boy.

Who writes well? Whose book is lost? Whom does the teacher help?

In 1, *boy* is the **subject** of the verb *writes*.

In 2, *boy's* denotes the owner or **possessor** of the *book*.

In 3, *boy* is the **object** of the verb *helps*.

We see that the same word is used in three different ways or relations; namely, as subject, possessor, and object. These three uses are called **cases**. Notice that the noun *boy* has the same form whether it is the subject or the object, but has a different form when it denotes possession. Thus nouns have three cases, but only two case forms.

214. DEFINITION. — **Case is a change in the form or use of a noun or pronoun to denote its relation to some other word or words in the sentence.**

215. The inflection of a noun or pronoun to show its case forms in the singular and plural is called **declension**. The nouns *boy* and *child* are declined as follows : —

CASE	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nominative	boy	boys	child	children
Possessive	boy's	boys'	child's	children's
Objective	boy	boys	child	children

216. **To form the possessive singular of nouns, add an apostrophe and *s* (*'s*)**; as, the *boy's* cap.

To form the possessive plural, add an apostrophe and *s* if the plural does not already end in *s* ; as, the *children's* books.

If the plural already ends in *s*, add the apostrophe only; as, the *boys'* caps.

EXERCISE 122

Write five sentences, each containing a noun in the nominative case; five containing a noun in the possessive case; and five containing a noun in the objective case. Underline the required nouns.

EXERCISE 123

Pick out the nouns and tell the case of each. Is the noun used as the subject, the object, or to denote possession?

1. Old Kaspar's work was done.
2. The wind damaged the fishermen's boats.
3. The mother lightly rocked the baby's cradle.
4. Full at Fitz-James's throat he sprung.
5. Birds hide their nests among the leaves.
6. The old gentleman's countenance beamed with delight.
7. We sell women's and children's shoes.
8. On the crossbeam under the Old South bell,
   The nest of a pigeon is builded well.

EXERCISE 124

Arrange the nouns of the first five sentences of the last exercise as follows: —

Nouns	Class	Number	Gender	Case	Use
Kaspar's	proper	singular	masculine	possessive	express ownership

EXERCISE 125

Write at least one hundred and fifty words on *Birds' Nests*, making four paragraphs: —

1. Purpose (eggs, young). 2. Materials (straw, hair, strings, etc.). 3. Shape (round, hanging, how attached). 4. Places (trees, ground, barns, eaves, chimneys, etc.).

CHAPTER LXII

SPECIAL RULES FOR FORMING POSSESSIVES

217. Compound nouns, and expressions serving to name a single person or thing, add the possessive sign to the last word; as, *my sister-in-law's letter; your brother George's mistake; the Duke of Wellington's estate.*

218. When two or more nouns imply **joint** possession, the sign is added to the last only; as, *Smith and Denny's store.*

219. When two or more nouns imply **separate** possession, the sign is added to each noun; as, *Webster's and Calhoun's speeches.*

220. The *s* is omitted in forming the possessive singular of a few words to avoid an unpleasant succession of *s* sounds, especially in such expressions as, *for goodness' sake, for conscience' sake, Demosthenes' orations.*

The tendency is to use an apostrophe and *s*, even with proper nouns ending in *s*; as, *Burns's poems, Mr. Goss's horse*, but usage is not uniform in this respect. For example, there is good authority for writing *Ellis'* or *Ellis's, Dickens'* or *Dickens's, Davis'* or *Davis's.*

If an *s* is added to a noun already ending in an *s* sound, the word is given another syllable. *Harris's*, for example, is pronounced as if it were spelled *Harrises.*

EXERCISE 126

1. Pronounce plainly: Charles's, Mr. Parsons's, Julius's, Chambers', Chambers's, Dickens', Dickens's, Burns's, Mr. Sykes's, John Burroughs's.

2. Insert the apostrophe where it is needed in the following sentences:—

1. Listen to the bluebirds song.
2. The workingmens wages have been increased.
3. We all started at a minutes notice.

4. Will you kindly take the ladies bundles?
5. Philips dwelling fronted the street.
6. A mischievous boy threw down the childrens hats.
7. The carpenters union will hold a meeting to-night.
8. James has been given a two weeks vacation.
9. I have received Tarr and McMurrys geography.

EXERCISE 127

Write out the following expressions, changing the nouns to the plural form: —

the baby's tooth	the woman's bonnet
the fly's wing	the horse's head
the wolf's cry	the girl's hat
the bird's nest	the shoemaker's knife
the lady's glove	the monkey's coat
the soldier's uniform	the ram's horn

CHAPTER LXIII

USES OF THE THREE CASES

NOMINATIVE CASE

221. We have now learned the three principal uses of the nominative case, as follows: —

A noun or pronoun used as the subject of a verb is in the nominative case; as, The *Pilgrims* came to Plymouth. A word so used is called a **Subject Nominative.**

A noun or pronoun used to complete the predicate and to explain the subject, is in the nominative case; as, We are not *enemies*. A word so used is called a **Predicate Nominative.**

A noun or pronoun that stands for a person or thing addressed is in the nominative case; as, Help me, *Cassius*. A word so used is called a **Vocative Nominative,** or **Nominative of Direct Address.**

(For other uses of the nominative case, see §§ 519, 521, 524.)

USES OF THE POSSESSIVE CASE

222. The possessive case is so named because its simplest use is to denote possession. But it does not always express literal ownership. "The boy's knife" means the knife **owned by** the boy, but "Longfellow's poems" means the poems **written by** Longfellow; "a mother's love" is the love **felt by** a mother; and "a month's vacation" is a vacation **lasting a month.**

223. It will be noticed that possessives have nearly the same force as adjectives. In the expression "women's hats," the possessive noun *women's* does the work of an adjective because it shows **what kind** of hats we mean.

A noun or pronoun used to modify a noun by denoting ownership, authorship, or a similar relation, is in the possessive case; as, A *man's* house is *his* castle. A word so used is called a **Possessive Modifier.**

POSSESSION EXPRESSED BY A PHRASE

224. The preposition *of* with a noun in the objective case often takes the place of the regular possessive form, and is used in many expressions where the possessive case would be improper.

For example, we may say, "the horses' heads," or "the heads of the horses," but we cannot correctly say "the room's top," or "the barn's roof," or "the sugar's price."

Such expressions as "the sugar's price" are improper because the possessive case is now mostly confined to names of *persons* and *animals*. In early English the names of things were frequently used in the possessive, and some of these forms are still in use; as, "the sun's rays,"

"the earth's surface," "the cannon's mouth," "a moment's delay," "the water's edge." But aside from a few such expressions, the possessive case of *things* should be avoided. It is better to say "a victim of cruelty" than "cruelty's victim."

225. Possession may be expressed by the **possessive case** or by a **phrase** introduced by the preposition *of*.

226. We sometimes find a **double possessive**, consisting of a possessive case and an *of-phrase;* as, a poem *of Whittier's;* this house *of mine*. Such expressions are proper, but it is not worth while to discuss them at this point.

EXERCISE 128

Write ten sentences, each containing a possessive. Write ten sentences, each containing an *of-phrase* expressing possession.

EXERCISE 129

1. In which of the following expressions could the *of-phrase* be properly replaced by a possessive? Give reasons for your answers.

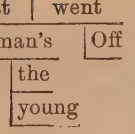
1. The palace of the king.
2. The source of the river.
3. The seat of war.
4. The army of General Lee.
5. The teeth of a dog.
6. The end of the term.
7. The success of the girl.
8. The beauties of June.
9. The election of Mr. Smith.
10. A meeting of teachers.
11. The vote of Alabama.
12. An association of nurses.
13. The center of the city.
14. The end of the street.
15. The motion of Mr. Martin.
16. The meaning of this poem.
17. The kindness of my mother.
18. A vacation of two weeks.
19. The union of bricklayers.
20. The width of the room.

2. Change these *of-phrases* to possessives: —

1. The factory of Smith and Lunt is closed.
2. We saw the palace of the King of England.
3. This is the house of my brother-in-law.
4. I have read the poems of Whittier, Longfellow, and Lanier.

227. ANALYSIS. — Possessive modifiers.

Off went the young man's hat.



A noun or pronoun in the possessive case modifies a noun like an adjective. The possessive *man's* modifies the noun *hat* by showing whose hat is meant.

USES OF THE OBJECTIVE CASE

228. The objective case is most commonly used as the object of a transitive verb or of a preposition.

A noun or pronoun used as the direct object of a transitive verb is in the objective case; as, Champlain explored *Canada*. A word so used is called a **Direct Object or an Object Complement.**

A noun or pronoun used as the object of a preposition is in the objective case; as, Penn made a treaty *with* the *Indians*.

The preposition introduces a **modifying phrase** of which the object is the principal word.

(For other uses of the objective case, see §§ 479, 522, 525, 532.)

CHAPTER LXIV

THE INDIRECT OBJECT

229. Study the following sentences: —

1. Albert lent his knife.
2. Albert lent *me* his knife.

In sentence 1, the transitive verb *lent* takes the direct object *knife*. In sentence 2, the pronoun *me* is added to the verb *lent* to show the person *to whom* Albert lent his knife.

230. Some transitive verbs may take **two** objects — a **direct** object, to name the receiver of the action, and an **indirect** object, to name the person or thing **to whom** or **to which** the action denoted by the verb is directed.

In many languages the indirect object has a distinct form, which is called the dative case. Some grammarians call the indirect object in English the "dative objective." *Dative* means **giving**. An examination of the list below will show that most of the verbs which take an indirect object convey the general idea of *giving* (or the opposite).

231. The position of the indirect object is immediately after the verb and before the direct object. When the indirect object comes last, the preposition *to* or *for* is usually expressed before it; as, —

I gave John the money.
I gave the money to John.

232. A noun or pronoun used as the indirect object of a transitive verb is in the objective case; as, Give *me* my hat. A word so used is called an **Indirect** (or **Dative**) **Object.**

Among the verbs that may take an indirect object are the following: —

Allow, assign, bequeath, bring, buy, deny, do, insure, fetch, forgive, furnish, give, get, hand, leave, lend, loan, make, offer, owe, pay, promise, refuse, remit, render, sell, send, show, spare, teach, tell, write.

EXERCISE 130

Make at least ten sentences with an indirect object in each.

233. The words *near*, *next*, and *like*, whether used as adjectives or as adverbs, may be followed by the **objective case**, without the preposition; as, He staggered *like* a drunken man. Some grammarians classify these words as *prepositions*.

EXERCISE 131

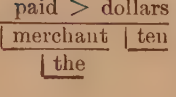
1. Point out the direct and indirect objects in the following sentences: —

1. I paid the grocer four dollars.
2. Have you sent your brother the book?
3. Who taught you grammar?
4. John's father promised him a holiday.
5. The usher handed each visitor a programme.
6. Thrice they offered him a kingly crown.
7. The crop brought the farmer a good price.
8. We owe the poet praise and tears.
9. I built my soul a lordly pleasure house.
10. Will you do me a favor?
11. His father left him much property.
12. Who told you that story?
13. You owe me ten dollars.
14. Franklin rendered the colonies a great service.
15. O, give me my lowly thatched cottage again.
16. His wife allowed him pocket money.
17. Constant success shows us but one side of life.
18. In the best books great men give us their most precious thoughts.
19. It affords me great pleasure to accept your kind invitation.
20. A ready way to lose your friend is to lend him money.

2. Change the above sentences so that the indirect object will follow the direct; as, I paid four dollars *to the grocer.*

234. ANALYSIS. — Indirect object.

I paid the merchant ten dollars.



The indirect object *merchant* is an adverbial modifier of the verb *paid.* There is no preposition expressed or "understood." When the preposition is expressed, we have a phrase which is analyzed like other adverbial phrases.

CHAPTER LXV

APPOSITION

235. Compare the two sentences below: —

John Jones has failed.
John Jones, the grocer, has failed.

In the second sentence the noun *grocer* is added to the subject to explain more clearly which John Jones is referred to. A noun so used is said to be in **apposition** with the noun which it explains. The noun *grocer* is in apposition with the noun *John Jones*. *Apposition* means **a placing near.**

236. A noun in apposition is in the same case as the noun or pronoun which it explains.

Thomas, the old blacksmith, is ill.
Have you seen Thomas, the old blacksmith?

In both sentences, *blacksmith* is simply a second noun added to the noun *Thomas* to explain its meaning and is, therefore, in the same case. In the first sentence *Thomas* is the subject of the sentence, and so both nouns are in the nominative case. In the second sentence *Thomas* is the object of the transitive verb *have seen*, and both nouns are in the objective case.

237. A possessive form in apposition needs attention.

My brother Joseph's health is poor.

In the above sentence, the nouns *brother* and *Joseph's* are both in the possessive case, but only the last noun takes the possessive sign, because the expression *brother Joseph* is regarded as a single name.

238. A noun or pronoun added to another noun or pronoun to explain its meaning, and denoting the same person, place, or thing, is put by apposition in the same case; as, Homer, the Greek *poet*, was blind. A word so used is called an **Appositive.**

239. Punctuation. — An appositive, with its modifiers, is set off by **commas** unless it is closely connected in thought with the word it explains.

EXERCISE 132

Pick out the nouns in apposition in the following sentences; tell the case of each, and what word it explains: —

1. One boy, Charles White, was absent.
2. We went fishing yesterday, Frank and I.
3. My uncle George was in town yesterday.
4. This is Mr. Morgan, a member of the school committee.
5. Atlanta, the capital of Georgia, is an enterprising city.
6. Jefferson, the author of the Declaration of Independence, died at Monticello.
7. Elias Howe, the inventor of the sewing machine, was once a poor man.
8. The children were found in a wretched house, a mere shed, near the river.
9. The prize was taken by Jacob Schultz, a pupil of the eighth grade.
10. We, the people of the United States, do ordain and establish this constitution.

EXERCISE 133

Write ten sentences, each containing one of the following words modified by an appositive expression: —

EXAMPLE: Cuba, the largest island of the West Indies, once belonged to Spain.

Harrisburg, Longfellow, Baltimore, William Penn, cotton, cattle, wheat, lions, Nashville, the Mississippi, the horse, oranges, tea, California, Robert Fulton.

240. ANALYSIS. — Appositives.

Audubon, the naturalist, was born in Louisiana.

Audubon = naturalist | was born
in > Louisiana

An appositive is placed after the word whose meaning it explains, with the sign of equality (=) between.

SUBSTITUTES FOR NOUNS

241. Words or groups of words that are **not nouns** are often used as **substitutes** for nouns: —

1. Pronouns; as, Martha has found *her* watch.
2. Adjectives; as, Be kind to the *poor*.
3. Phrases; as, *To forget a wrong* is the best revenge.
4. Clauses; as, I know *why you have come*.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is an abstract noun? A concrete noun? Give examples. 2. What is a collective noun? 3. What is inflection? 4. What is meant by number? 5. What is the plural of *monkey, shelf, cuff, wife, safe, piano, hero, hold-up, brother-in-law, stratum, terminus, crisis?* 6. What is gender? 7. Give the feminine of *lord, patron, lad, executor.* 8. Mention three methods of forming the feminine.

9. What is case? 10. Give sentences illustrating the use of the three cases. 11. How is the possessive case formed? 12. Explain two ways of expressing possession. 13. Where would you place the apostrophe in writing *childrens shoes? ladies hats? Flint and Kents store?* 14. Give three rules for the use of the nominative case. 15. Give a rule for the use of the possessive case. 16. Give two rules for the objective case. 17. Illustrate indirect object. 18. Explain what is meant by apposition. Give an example. 19. What does the word *apposition* mean? 20. What is a noun in apposition called? 21. How are such nouns punctuated? 22. Name four kinds of substitutes for nouns.

CHAPTER LXVI

HOW TO PARSE NOUNS

242. **To parse** a word is to **describe** it as it stands in a given sentence. This is done by telling (1) what part of speech it is, (2) its inflection, if it has any, (3) its syntax, or relation to other words in the sentence. We are now ready to parse most of the nouns we meet with.

243. To parse a **noun**, we state (1) its **class**, (2) its **number**, (3) its **gender**, (4) its **case**, (5) its **syntax**, or use in the sentence.

EXAMPLE: Maud Muller on a summer's day
Raked the meadows sweet with hay.

1. *Maud Muller* is a proper noun, singular number, feminine gender, nominative case, subject to the verb *raked*.

2. *Summer's* is a common noun, singular number, neuter gender, possessive case, modifying the noun *day*.

3. *Day* is a common noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, object of the preposition *on*.

4. *Meadows* is a common noun, plural number, neuter gender, objective case, object of the transitive verb *raked*.

5. *Hay* is a common noun, singular number, neuter gender, objective case, object of the preposition *with*.

EXERCISE 134

Parse the nouns in the following sentences:—

1. The reaper's work is done. — HEMANS.
2. Birds are singing round my window. — STODDARD.
3. Brisk talkers are generally slow thinkers. — SWIFT.
4. I bring fresh showers for the thirsting flowers. — SHELLEY.
5. The earth gives her streams to the sea. — SWINBURNE.
6. My days are swifter than a weaver's shuttle. — BIBLE.
7. I don't choose a hornet's nest about my ears. — COOPER.

8. Twilight's soft dews steal o'er the village green. — ROGERS.
9. Lead, kindly light, amid the encircling gloom. — NEWMAN.
10. And they heaved a mighty breath, every soul on board but me. — STEVENSON.
11. To-day we were walking through Truro, a town of about eighteen hundred inhabitants. — THOREAU.
12. I can see John D. White, the school teacher, now, with his long beech switch always in his hand. — U. S. GRANT.

CHAPTER LXVII

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS

244. Pronouns are of four kinds.

1. Personal; as, *I*, *we*, *you*, *she*.
2. Interrogative; as, *who? which? what?*
3. Relative; as, *who*, *which*.
4. Adjective; as, *this*, *some*, *any*.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

245. Pick out each pronoun in the next sentence, and tell whether it refers to the person **speaking**, the person **spoken to**, or the person **spoken of**.

I saw George, but he sent me to you.

Such pronouns as *I*, *he*, *me*, *you*, are called personal pronouns.

Pronouns that refer to the person speaking are pronouns of the *first person;* as, *I* am here. Pronouns that refer to the person spoken to are pronouns of the *second person;* as, *You* are mistaken. Pronouns that refer to the person or thing spoken of are pronouns of the *third person;* as, *He* has found *it*.

246. DEFINITIONS. — **Person is a change in the form or use of a noun or pronoun to denote the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of**; as, *We boys* will play; *Emily*, *you* write well; *I* will bring *him* the *key*.

A Personal Pronoun is a pronoun that shows by its form whether it stands for the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of; as, *I* told *you* that *he* was here.

NOTE. — When a noun names a person spoken to, or is in apposition with a pronoun of the first or second person (as in some of the examples given above), the noun is said to be in the first or second person; but these uses are so rare that person is not required in the form for parsing nouns (§ 243).

CHAPTER LXVIII

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

247. Tell the person, number, and case of the pronouns below, and give the reasons: —

I am coming.
Bring *my* book.
The book is *mine*.
Fred helped *me*.

We are coming.
Bring *our* books.
The books are *ours*.
Fred helped *us*.

DECLENSION OF THE FIRST PERSON

CASE	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nominative	I	we
Possessive	my, mine	our, ours
Objective	me	us

248. Tell the person, number, and case of these pronouns: —

Thou art the man.
Thy will be done.
Take what is *thine*.
I will not forsake *thee*.

You are late, girls.
Boys, take *your* books.
Friends, the house is *yours*.
Soldiers, I will lead *you*.

THE SECOND PERSON

CASE	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nominative	thou	you, ye
Possessive	thy, thine	your, yours
Objective	thee	you, ye

The forms *thou*, *thy*, *thine*, *thee*, *ye*, are now seldom used except in the Bible, in poetry, and in solemn language like that of prayer or invocation.

249. In ordinary speech, both spoken and written, *you*, *your*, and *yours* are used in the singular as well as in the plural. When used in the singular they are plural in **form** but singular in **sense**; as, Mary, *you* are late.

250. Tell the person, number, gender, and case of these pronouns: —

He is ill.
His father is here.
Help *him*.
She came to-day.
Her father came, too.
Call *her*.
See *them* with *us*.
She sees *him*.
We shall see *them*.
It is lost.
Its handle is gone.
Throw *it* away.
They are here.
Their trunks have come.
The boys saw *them*.
I see *them*.
Did *you* call *me*?
You and *I* are friends.

THE THIRD PERSON

	Singular			*Plural*
CASE	MASC.	FEM.	NEUTER	MASC., FEM., AND NEUTER
Nominative	he	she	it	they
Possessive	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
Objective	him	her	it	them

251. It will be noticed that most personal pronouns have **two forms** for the possessive in each number. They are generally used as follows: —

The forms *my*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, are used when they are **followed by** the nouns they modify; as, I have found *my* cane; *your* hat is here.

The forms *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, are used when they are **not followed by** nouns; as, My coat is black, but *yours* is blue. Your shoes and *mine* need mending.

252. Do not use an apostrophe with the possessive forms of personal pronouns.

EXERCISE 135

1. Explain why each form of the possessive pronoun is used: —

1. Is this your pencil? 2. No, it is hers. 3. I want my hat. 4. Yours is gone, but mine is here. 5. They wish to borrow our lawn mower. 6. Will you lend them yours? 7. No, I never borrow theirs. 8. Give the rabbits their breakfast. 9. Ida has lost her knife. 10. We have found your ring. 11. These books are ours.

2. Fill these blanks with some proper form of a personal pronoun in the possessive case: —

1. He took —— overcoat with him. 2. I did not take ——. 3. Maud, show me —— hands. 4. Anna, have you washed ——? 5. Is this drawing ——? 6. This flower has lost —— freshness.

CHAPTER LXIX

ANTECEDENTS

253. In the next sentence what word takes the place of *daisies?*

The *daisies* have shut up *their* sleepy red eyes.

In the above sentence *their* is a personal pronoun referring to the noun *daisies*. The word *daisies* is the

antecedent of the pronoun *their*. *Antecedent* means **going before.**

254. DEFINITION. — **The Antecedent of a pronoun is the word or words for which the pronoun stands;** as, *Emma* has lost *her* ring.

255. The antecedent of a pronoun may be a word or a group of words. In the sentence, "The boy has left home, but *he* will soon regret *it*," the antecedent of *he* is the noun *boy*, but the antecedent of *it* is found in the words, *The boy has left home.* What will he regret? Ans. *That he has left home.*

EXERCISE 136

Select the personal pronouns in the following sentences, and tell the antecedent of each pronoun, if it has one : —

1. The beginning of a river is called its source.
2. Cornelia said of her boys, "These are my jewels."
3. John is making a great mistake, but he does not know it.
4. Helen Hunt Jackson was fifty-four years old when she died.
5. Ernest's mother felt that it was better to encourage the hopes of her little boy.
6. The children of the village were fond of Rip Van Winkle, because he assisted them at their sports.
7. Bessie and Tilly looked at Kate with surprise, for they wondered how she could be so happy when she was so poor.
8. The murmur of the multitude in their surprise at the spectacle of Jason with his bare feet, grew so loud that it disturbed the ceremonies.
9. All stood amazed, until an old woman, tottering out from the crowd, put her hand to her brow, and exclaimed: "Sure enough, it is Rip Van Winkle! Why, where have you been these twenty long years?"
10. This was the guide's simple story. I asked him what became of the vest and buttons, and the bar of iron. He said the old man wore the vest until he wore it out; and then he handed it over to the boys, and they wore it in turn until they wore it out.

CHAPTER LXX

"IT" INTRODUCTORY

256. Observe how the pronoun *it* is used in the second and third sentences: —

1. To give advice is easy.
2. It is easy to give advice.
3. It is evident that you doubt my word.

In the first sentence above, the subject is a phrase. This becomes plain if we ask the question, *What* is easy?

The second sentence means the same as the first, but the form is different. The pronoun *it* is used to introduce the sentence, and stands for the phrase, *to give advice*, which now comes last.

Likewise, in the third sentence, *it* stands for the clause *that you doubt my word.* What is evident? If this expression is placed first, we have exactly the same meaning without using *it.*

In such sentences as 2 and 3, *it* is the subject, with the explanatory phrase or clause in apposition.

EXERCISE 137

In the following sentences tell the phrase or clause to which the introductory *it* refers. Rearrange each sentence so as to make sense without the pronoun *it.*

1. It is dangerous to live in swampy places.
2. It requires much skill to handle machinery.
3. It took us boys two days to get there.
4. It is difficult to climb to the summit of Mt. Blanc.
5. It was his ambition to be a painter.
6. It is better to wear out than to rust out.
7. Is it good for your health to work at night?

8. It is more blessed to give than to receive.
9. It is now possible to cross the Atlantic in about five days.
10. It is not easy to speak justly of our own work.

For analysis of above sentences, see § 364.

CHAPTER LXXI

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS

257. Notice the peculiar **form** and **use** of the italicized pronouns in the following sentences: —

1. I *myself* saw the accident.
2. I will leave it to the teacher *herself.*
3. Henry lifted *himself* into the carriage.
4. Some people are always talking about *themselves.*

258. By adding *self* (singular) or *selves* (plural) to the pronouns *my*, *our*, *thy*, *your*, *him*, *her*, *it*, and *them*, we form **compound personal pronouns.**

259. When joined with a noun or pronoun in the nominative or objective case, these forms are used for emphasis (1 and 2). When so used they are called **intensive pronouns,** because they emphasize or intensify the meaning of a noun or pronoun. *Myself* emphasizes the pronoun *I*, and *herself* emphasizes the noun *teacher.* When used alone as the object of a verb or preposition, they are *reflexive;* that is, they refer to the subject of the verb (3 and 4). When so used, they are called **reflexive pronouns.**

260. DEFINITION. — **A Compound Personal Pronoun is a pronoun formed by adding *self* or *selves* to a simple personal pronoun**; as, *myself*, *herself*, *themselves.*

261. An intensive pronoun is in apposition with the noun or pronoun which it emphasizes.

The word *own* is used in place of the possessive case of these pronouns; as, Use your *own* knife.

The simple personal pronoun is sometimes used in a reflexive sense; as, I made a tent to protect *me* from the sun.

EXERCISE 138

1. In the following sentences (1) tell whether each pronoun ending in *self* or *selves* is intensive or reflexive; (2) tell what noun or pronoun each intensive pronoun emphasizes; (3) tell the verb or preposition of which each reflexive pronoun is the object, and the noun or pronoun to which it refers: —

1. The watchman himself had fallen asleep.
2. The dog stretched himself before the fire.
3. I myself picked twelve quarts of berries.
4. We seldom see ourselves as others see us.
5. The travelers found themselves in a dense forest.
6. The cook herself did not know what was in the dish.
7. The boy then covered himself with the bear's skin.
8. A good intention clothes itself with sudden power.
9. It was evident that the guide himself had lost his way.
10. The vacant soul preys on itself. — CHANNING.
11. The gale had sighed itself to rest. — SCOTT.
12. Crimes generally punish themselves. — GOLDSMITH.
13. He that wrongs his friend wrongs himself more. — TENNYSON.
14. He was not merely a chip of the old block, but the old block itself. — BURKE.
15. To the fishermen, the Cape itself is a sort of storeship laden with supplies. — THOREAU.
16. The peddler threw himself on the ground. — COOPER.
17. I myself sometimes despise myself. — TENNYSON.
18. The great globe itself shall dissolve. — SHAKESPEARE.

2. Find four complex sentences among the above.

3. Analyze the first five of the above sentences. Remember that the intensive pronoun is an appositive (§ 261).

CHAPTER LXXII

AGREEMENT OF PRONOUNS

262. In the following sentences find the **antecedent** of each pronoun. Tell the person, number, and gender of each pronoun, and of its antecedent.

1. James has come, but Lucy has not seen *him.*
2. Ethel is away, but *she* will soon return.
3. The travelers thanked father when *they* left.
4. Every soldier carried *his* own knapsack.
5. Each pupil did *his* very best.
6. Every person was asked to express *his* or *her* opinion.

263. A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in person, number, and gender.

1. If the antecedent is singular, or is modified by *each* or *every*, the pronoun should be singular, as in 1, 2, 4, 5, and 6.

2. If the singular antecedent is one that may be either masculine or feminine, the masculine singular pronoun is generally used, as in 5.

3. If greater precision is required, both the masculine and feminine singular pronouns are used, as in 6.

4. The use of *their* in place of *his* in sentences like 4, 5, and 6 is very common, especially in conversational speech, but this use should be avoided.

EXERCISE 139

Fill each blank in these sentences with an appropriate pronoun, and give reasons: —

1. The boys have gone to —— room. 2. Every child likes to have —— own way. 3. England expects every man to do —— duty. 4. Each man thinks —— own watch is right. 5. Trees bear fruit according to —— kind. 6. We do not like to admit —— mistakes.

7. Some one of them has left —— rubbers. 8. Every member of the class had —— lesson. 9. An author is not a good judge of —— own books. 10. Each man declared that —— would not work. 11. Everybody likes to do things in —— own way. 12. Each man's happiness depends on ——. 13. Put everything in —— proper place. 14. Has anybody lost —— gloves? 15. All the parents showed —— interest in the concert.

CHAPTER LXXIII

SPECIAL RULES OF GENDER

264. Personal pronouns of the first and second persons do not indicate gender. The pronouns *I*, *you*, *we*, etc., may be masculine, feminine, or common.

In the third person singular, there is a different form for each gender; as *he*, *she*, *it*.

In the third person plural, the form *they* may be used for all genders.

265. A thing **without animal life** is usually regarded as having no sex. But when the thing is thought of as possessing masculine qualities, like strength or power, or feminine qualities, like beauty or grace, the thing is said to be **personified**, and is regarded as masculine or feminine.

> The sun arose in all *his* state.
> The moon sheds *her* silvery beams.

266. The nouns *ship*, *vessel*, and the like are regularly regarded as feminine; as, —

> *She* was a small schooner. — IRVING.
> The *Majestic* got entangled, but *she* swung clear. — SOUTHEY.

267. In referring to **lower animals**, the pronoun *he* is used for a male, and *she* for a female, when accuracy is important. Otherwise, the tendency is to use *he* in referring to large animals, and *it* in referring to small animals,

but there are many exceptions in the usage of good writers and speakers.

If the writer thinks of the animal as possessing feminine qualities, *she* is used without regard to sex.

The neuter *it* is sometimes used in referring to a small child when sex is not considered.

EXERCISE 140

The following sentences were all written by well-known authors.

Notice that each personal pronoun of the third person, singular number, shows the gender of the noun to which it refers.

Try to think why each animal is thought of as being of the gender indicated.

1. The night sparrow trills *her* song.
2. The wild beast from *his* cavern sprang.
   The wild bird from *her* tree.
3. I hear the lark begin *his* flight.
4. Then the little Hiawatha
   Learned of every bird *its* language.
5. The jay's neighbors do not like *him*.
6. If your bird belongs to the divers, *its* legs will be set far back.
7. Pussy's tail is part of *her* backbone.
8. A harsh or sudden noise disturbs a canary, and a severe fright may kill *it*.
9. The most curious thing about the toad is *its* tongue.
10. Robert Bruce watched the patient efforts of the spider to repair *its* web.
11. The forest's leaping panther shall yield *his* spotted hide.
12. A simple child, what should *it* know of death?
13. The 'coon most often makes *his* home in a hollow tree.
14. The badger feeds upon whatever animal food *he* can kill or catch that is not carrion.

CHAPTER LXXIV

CASE RELATIONS OF PRONOUNS

268. We have already found that a pronoun has, in general, the same case relations as a noun (Chapter LXIII).

269. A pronoun is in the **nominative** case, —

(1) when it is used as the subject of a verb; as, *He* and James are here.

(2) when it is used to complete the predicate after *is, was*, etc.; as, It is *he*.

(3) when it stands for a person addressed; as, O *thou* that hearest prayer, etc.

270. A pronoun is in the **objective** case, —

(1) when it is used as the object of a transitive verb; as, I pity John and *him*.

(2) when it is used as the object of a preposition; as, They sent for *him* and *me*.

(3) when it is used as the indirect object of a transitive verb; as, Hand *me* my hat.

271. A pronoun is in the **possessive** case when it denotes ownership; as, He sits among *his* boys.

272. A pronoun may be in apposition with a noun or another pronoun; as, George *himself* is to blame.

273. When two or more personal pronouns are used together, the pronoun of the second person, if used, should come first, and that of the first person, last; as, *You and I; you and he; she and I.*

CHAPTER LXXV

COMMON ERRORS IN THE USE OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

274. Personal pronouns have twelve different forms for the third person alone, and twenty-eight forms in all. For this reason it is only through long-continued practice that we can learn to use the various forms of these pronouns correctly.

EXERCISE 141

In the following sentences fill each blank with *I*, *me*, or *myself*, and give reasons: —

1. They blamed him and ——. 2. They all went except you and ——. 3. Fred and —— were late. 4. I took the pencil ——. 5. It was ——. 6. Which writes better, Clara or ——? 7. I did it ——. 8. You know that as well as ——. 9. Invitations were sent to Jane and ——. 10. Between you and ——, it is not true. 11. Did he say it was ——? 12. I have cut ——. 13. Was it —— that you wanted? 14. He is more deserving of praise than ——. 15. Who wants this apple? ——. 16. Whom does he refer to? ——. 17. Did you ask Lucy or ——? 18. Did you think it could be ——?

EXERCISE 142

In the following sentences fill each blank with *we*, *us*, or *ourselves*, and give reasons: —

1. He thought it was ——. 2. —— boys were excused. 3. He is not agreeable to —— girls. 4. Have they done better than ——? 5. —— worked the examples ——. 6. Can they paint better than ——? 7. —— concealed ——. 8. Others are late as well as ——. 9. The teacher praised the girls, especially ——. 10. They were not so much to blame as ——. 11. Let —— speak for ——. 12. Who discovered the fire? ——. 13. The next time —— will look out for ——. 14. I knew they would think it was ——.

EXERCISE 143

1. In the following sentences, fill each blank with *he*, *him*, or *himself* and give reasons : —

1. If I were ——, I would keep quiet.
2. We met Mary and —— on the street.
3. Who left this knife? ——.
4. They sent for you and ——.
5. Who is whispering? It is ——.
6. Was it —— that called me?
7. I am friendly to both John and ——.
8. Are you sure it was not ——?
9. If I were ——, I would refuse.
10. Mary and —— remained at home.
11. Edward is not liked so well as ——.
12. I like Edward better than ——.
13. Why have you and —— been sent for?
14. Who said it was ——?
15. All went except Sarah and ——.
16. I am older than ——.
17. The teacher dismissed the class, —— along with the rest.
18. Harry was sent home instead of ——.
19. —— and I will start.
20. —— lost the ring ——.
21. —— blames ——.
22. Why should you and —— be in so great a hurry?
23. Frank can speak French, as well as ——.
24. Either —— or I can do it.
25. I said good-by to all, —— among the rest.
26. I have no fondness for Emma and ——.
27. Why did you think Arthur and —— would not come?
28. —— took the largest piece for ——.
29. We want you and —— to go.
30. He —— is more at fault than I.
31. —— and Alfred will attend to it.
32. Whom do you blame, Ella or ——?

2. Fill the blanks in the last exercise with *she*, *her*, or *herself*.

EXERCISE 144

In the following sentences, fill each blank with *they*, *them*, or *themselves*, and give reasons: —

1. We worked harder than ——.
2. Few did as well as ——.
3. What made —— laugh so?
4. Was it —— that you wanted?
5. Tell —— to do the work.
6. Can it be —— who are calling?
7. They sometimes make mistakes ——.
8. —— toil for their families, not for ——.
9. We like to help those who help ——.
10. I hardly think it was ——.
11. —— confessed —— in the wrong.
12. Who will succeed? —— who try.
13. We work just as faithfully as ——.
14. Pupils such as —— deserve to succeed.
15. It couldn't have been ——.
16. Who broke the window? It was ——.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Define person. 2. Define personal pronoun. 3. Explain three kinds of personal pronouns. 4. Explain the uses of the possessive forms *my, mine, her, hers*, etc. 5. Explain the use of *you* as a subject. 6. What is meant by antecedent? Illustrate its use in a sentence. 7. Explain the use of *it* to introduce a sentence. 8. What are pronouns ending in *-self* called? 9. Explain two uses of *self*-pronouns. 10. In the sentence, *John himself admitted his mistake*, how is *himself* used? 11. Give a rule for the agreement of personal pronouns. 12. What is wrong in the next sentence? *Each man carried their dinner.* 13. What is said about the gender of *I, you, we*, etc.? The gender of *they?* The gender of *he, she*, and *it?* 14. How are *he, she*, and *it* used in referring to lower animals? 15. When is a pronoun in the nominative case? 16. In the objective case? 17. In the possessive case? 18. Why are the following sentences wrong? *Henry and me went to the party. Us girls were there. Between you and I, they are wrong. He and you may go.*

CHAPTER LXXVI

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

275. A study of the following sentences will show that they are **questions**, and that each is introduced by a **pronoun.**

Who is coming?	Whose hat is this?	Which do you prefer?
Who are they?	Whom do you want?	What did you say?

276. The pronouns *who*, *which*, and *what*, when used in asking questions, are called **interrogative pronouns.** Their declension is as follows: —

	Singular and Plural		
Nominative	who	which	what
Possessive	whose		
Objective	whom	which	what

277. *Who* refers to persons; as, —

Who is that? *Whose* key is this? *Whom* did you see?

Which refers to persons or things, and is used in a **selective** sense; as, —

Which is your brother? *Which* are your books?

What generally refers to things; as, —

What do you want?

Which and *what* are often used as interrogative **adjectives**; as, —

Which hat did you select? *What salary* do you receive?

278. Definition. — **An Interrogative Pronoun is a pronoun that is used in asking a question**; as, *Who* did this?

279. Interrogative pronouns are often used as predicate nominatives (§ 84); as, *What* is this? = This is what?

280. After expressions that imply *asking*, *knowing*, *telling*, or the like, *who*, *which*, or *what* may introduce a **noun clause** consisting of an indirect question; as, I know *who you are*.

EXERCISE 145

Select the interrogative pronouns in the following sentences, and tell the case of each. In order to see the construction, first rearrange the sentences so that the complete subject will come first: —

1. What is your name? 2. What do you want? 3. Who'll toll the bell? 4. What does little baby say? 5. Lady Moon, whom are you loving? 6. What makes it so dark? 7. Who stole the bird's nest? 8. What is wanting to thy heart? 9. Whose knife is this? 10. For what is Richmond noted? 11. Which of the compositions is the best? 12. Whose business is it to ring the bell? 13. What was it all about? 14. What did they fight each other for?

EXERCISE 146

1. Fill the blanks in the following exercise with suitable interrogative pronouns: —

1. —— called me? 2. —— do you want? 3. —— has my hat? 4. —— do you prefer? 5. —— are you doing? 6. —— hat is this? 7. With —— is she talking? 8. —— of his hands was hurt? 9. —— is that woman in black? 10. —— are those girls? 11. —— is a peninsula? 12. —— books are these? 13. —— of these coats will you take? 14. Of —— did you buy it? 15. —— did the teacher help? 16. By —— were you helped? 17. To —— do you recite? 18. —— is her desk? 19. —— does the best? 20. Under —— did he serve?

2. Use each of the following interrogative pronouns in a different sentence: —

(1) *Who*, *which*, and *what* as subjects.

(2) *Whose* denoting possession.

(3) *Whom*, *which*, and *what* as objects of verbs or prepositions.

CHAPTER LXXVII

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

281. Sentences like the following require close examination: —

Jackson was an obstinate man, who had his own way.

A careful study of the above sentence will bring out three important facts.

1. It consists of **two statements** joined together: (*a*) Jackson was an obstinate man, (*b*) Jackson had his own way.

2. The two statements **are joined** by the word *who*, which takes the place of the noun *Jackson* in the second sentence, and relates to the noun *man* in the first sentence.

3. The connecting word *who* is not a conjunction but a **pronoun**, since it is used instead of a noun. A word used like *who* in the above sentence is called a **relative pronoun.**

282. The noun or pronoun for which the relative stands is called its **antecedent** (§ 254).

283. DEFINITION. — **A Relative Pronoun is a pronoun that connects clauses by relating to some preceding word or words called its antecedent**; as, John has returned the book *that* he borrowed.

284. A clause introduced by a relative pronoun is called a **relative clause.** Such a clause is subordinate to the clause containing the antecedent, and the clauses thus united form a **complex sentence**; as, —

This is the book that you lent me.

Here the relative clause, *that you lent me*, is dependent, since it merely explains or modifies its antecedent *book*, found in the main clause. The sentence is *complex.*

DECLENSION OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS

285. *Who*, the only relative pronoun that can be inflected, has the singular and plural alike.

		Singular and Plural		
Nominative	who	which	that	what
Possessive	whose	(whose)		
Objective	whom	which	that	what

CHAPTER LXXVIII

USES OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS

286. As a general rule, *who* relates to persons, *which* to things, *that* to persons, animals, or things, and *what* to things.

Who is sometimes used in referring to animals when they are thought of as persons or as possessing special intelligence; as, —

I knew a tame deer *who* had the misfortune to break her leg.
— Warner.

287. *Which* may have a phrase or clause for an antecedent; as, —

He deserved to succeed, *which* is all that any one can do.

288. *As* after *such* or *same* has the force of a relative; as, —

He told me the same story *as* he told you.

Here the meaning is not changed if we substitute *that* or *which* for *as*.

289. *But*, after a negative, often has the force of a relative; as, —

There is no man *but* wishes to live.

Here *but* is equivalent to *that not*.

EXERCISE 147

Connect the following pairs of sentences by means of relative pronouns. Place the pronoun near its antecedent: —

EXAMPLE: Benedict Arnold, who betrayed his country, died in obscurity.

1. Benedict Arnold died in obscurity. He betrayed his country.
2. Tim has found the money. It was lost yesterday.
3. A man came running up. He heard me calling.
4. A medal was given to the officer. He saved the child's life.
5. They met a man. They had never seen him before.
6. We reached the hill. From it we could see the ocean.
7. We have a great country. Its flag is honored everywhere.
8. There was a drawbridge over the ditch. The ditch surrounded the castle.
9. There are many cunning insects. They know how to weave and spin.
10. My uncle has a fine pear tree. Its fruit is excellent.
11. General Lee was a sincere man. Nobody doubted his honesty.
12. The children picked ten quarts of berries. They took them to the market.
13. John has studied faithfully. The prize was awarded to him.
14. An old man knocked at the door. His clothes were very ragged.
15. Stonewall Jackson was a brave man. Everyone respected him.

EXERCISE 148

Fill the blanks with suitable relative pronouns: —

1. I know the song —— the bluebird is singing. 2. A farmer —— I know well, lost twenty chickens in one night. 3. We do not like to help men —— will not help themselves. 4. Once there was a fox terrier named Chip —— hurt his foot. 5. Some people have pet cats —— they treat with great kindness. 6. A fox —— life is spent near a village is very sly. 7. Birds enjoy a dish of water in —— they can bathe. 8. The girls —— were in the room were frightened.

EXERCISE 149

Name each relative pronoun in the following sentences and tell whether each antecedent stands for a person, an animal, or a thing: —

1. Baffin's Bay was named after William Baffin, who first explored it.
2. How many things can you think of that are made of iron?
3. Farmers generally sell their wheat to those who convert it into flour.
4. The cocoanut is the fruit of a palm which grows in the West Indies.
5. Cloves are buds of a tree which grows in the Spice Islands.
6. William Penn was a man whom the Indians always respected.
7. There are several kinds of turtles, some of which are not fit for food.
8. The cinnamon tree, the bark of which furnishes the spice of that name, grows wild in the forests of Ceylon.
9. The sea lions, which had gathered by thousands on the cliffs, did not seem to be disturbed by our approach.
10. Goodness is the only investment that never fails. — THOREAU.
11. He is the freeman whom the truth makes free. — COWPER.
12. Those who have known grief seldom seem sad. — BEACONSFIELD.
13. There never was a person that did anything worth doing who did not really receive more than he gave. — BEECHER.
14. A man who is sure of his point carries a broad and contented expression, which every one reads. — EMERSON.
15. I was ever moved by my country, whose voice I can never hear but with reverence and love. — WASHINGTON.
16. There is no heroic poem in the world but is at bottom a biography. — CARLYLE.
17. He felt the damp of the river fog, that rises after the sun goes down. — LONGFELLOW.

Point out the principal and the dependent clause in each of the above sentences. What kind of sentences are they? Are the dependent clauses used as nouns, adverbs, or adjectives?

CHAPTER LXXIX

THE RELATIVE PRONOUN *WHAT*

290. *What* differs from the other relative pronouns in having **no antecedent** expressed, the antecedent and relative being condensed into one word. For this reason *what* is often equivalent to *that which.*

1. I hear *what* you say.
2. I hear *that which* you say.

In the first sentence *what* is the object of the verb *say*, and the clause *what you say* is the object of the verb *hear*. In the second sentence, the relative *which* is the object of *say*, and *that* is the object of *hear*.

291. Dependent clauses introduced by *what* are **noun clauses** (§ 280).

Do not confuse the interrogative *what* with the relative *what*.

He was pleased with *what* he saw. (Relative.)
I wonder *what* he said. (Interrogative.)

EXERCISE 150

Explain the construction of each sentence as it stands, then change each *what* to *that which* and explain the change in construction.

1. What you say is true.
2. I mean what I say.
3. The man took what he wanted.
4. The children did what was right.
5. He found what he was hunting for.
6. I shall do what seems best.
7. You cannot rely on what he says.

8. What man has done man can do.
9. No man can lose what he never had.
10. This game is what I used to play.
11. From what I can learn, the loss will be heavy.
12. What is one man's meat is another man's poison.

CHAPTER LXXX

COMPOUND RELATIVE PRONOUNS

292. By adding the endings *-ever* or *-soever* to *who*, *which*, and *what*, we form **Compound Relative Pronouns.** These relatives, like *what* (§ 290), usually have no antecedent expressed, the implied antecedent being equivalent to some indefinite expression, such as *the person*, *the thing*, *anybody*, *everybody*, *anything*, *everything*, etc.

Whatever he says is true = Everything that he says is true.

DEFINITION. — **Compound Relative Pronouns are pronouns formed by adding *-ever* or *-soever* to *who*, *which*, and *what*.**

EXERCISE 151

1. Find the relative pronouns in these sentences. 2. Name the antecedent of each. 3. Use a compound relative pronoun in place of the simple relative and its antecedent.

1. Leave at home everything that you do not need.
2. Any one who makes that statement is mistaken.
3. Every one who has finished his lesson may stand.
4. He gave away everything that he possessed.
5. Anything that is worth doing at all is worth doing well.
6. The stranger spoke to everybody whom he saw.
7. Anything that interferes with your health should be avoided.

293. A compound relative pronoun usually introduces **a noun clause**; as,—

1. Whoever told that story is mistaken.
2. He struck whoever came along.
3. He struck whomever he met.

In sentence 1, *whoever* is the subject of *told*, and the noun clause, *whoever told that story*, is the subject of *is mistaken*. In 2, *whoever* is the subject of *came*, and the noun clause, *whoever came along*, is the object of *struck*. In 3, *whomever* is the object of *met*, and the noun clause, *whomever he met*, is the object of *struck*.

EXERCISE 152

In each sentence explain the use of the compound relative pronoun as it stands. Name each noun clause and tell whether it is used as a subject or as an object.

1. Invite whomever you see.
2. Whoever said that told a falsehood.
3. Whatever he does will satisfy me.
4. You can have whatever you want.
5. Whatsoever he doeth shall prosper.
6. Whoever enters here leaves hope behind.
7. I will do whatsoever you command me.
8. Whoever returns the watch will be rewarded.
9. He tells the same story to whomsoever he meets.
10. Whosoever will may join our party.
11. Whatever is, is right.
12. Whatever he commands you, that do without fear or question.
13. Whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so unto them.
14. Whatever he did was done with all his might.
15. Whatsoever your hands find to do, that do with all your might.
16. Do whatever you can to help a friend.

CHAPTER LXXXI

OMISSION OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUN

294. The relative pronoun is sometimes **omitted**, leaving two clauses without any connective expressed.

It is the king of the year (who) rides past. — RILEY.
Men must reap the things (that) they sow. — SHELLEY.

EXERCISE 153

1. Supply the omitted relative pronoun in each of the following sentences. 2. Tell whether the relative pronoun, if expressed, would be a subject or an object. 3. Give each principal and each subordinate clause. 4. Tell what the subordinate clause modifies.

1. I am monarch of all I survey. — COWPER.
2. I have a brother is condemned to die. — SHAKESPEARE.
3. The selfish heart deserves the pain it feels. — YOUNG.
4. This is a place they are bound to watch. — STEVENSON.
5. Our great sails caught all the air there was. — THOREAU.
6. There are millions never think a noble thought. — BAILEY.
7. The comfort of the sunshine is a thing I cannot tell. — STEVENSON.
8. Every duty we omit obscures some truth we should have known. — RUSKIN.
9. Censure is the tax a man pays to the public for being eminent. — SWIFT.
10. There was a jolly miller once lived on the river Dee. — BICKERSTAFF.
11. Opium is pleasing to Turks on account of the agreeable delirium it produces. — BURKE.
12. A contented mind is the greatest blessing a man can enjoy in this world. — ADDISON.
13. 'Tis distance lends enchantment to the view. — CAMPBELL.
14. 'Tis sweet to know there is one eye will mark
Our coming, and look brighter when we come. — BYRON.

CHAPTER LXXXII

RESTRICTIVE AND EXPLANATORY CLAUSES

295. Notice how the relative clause is used in this sentence: —

1. The man who set the fire has not been found.

Here the relative clause, *who set the fire*, defines or restricts the meaning of the antecedent. What *man* is meant? The man *who set the fire*. The application of the noun *man* is restricted to a particular person. This is called the **restrictive** use of the relative, and the clause which such a relative introduces is called a **restrictive relative clause.** In the next sentence the use of the relative is quite different.

2. I met John Jones, who told me about the fire.

Here the relative pronoun is nearly equivalent to a conjunction. The sentence might be written, "I met John Jones *and he* told me about the fire." The relative clause does not restrict the antecedent *John Jones*, but simply adds an explanatory fact. This is called the **explanatory,** or non-restrictive, use of the relative pronoun. Such a clause is called an **explanatory relative clause.**

Sometimes the explanatory clause is merely *parenthetical;* as, "Our steamer, which was named the *Batavia*, was a stanch boat." Here the meaning would not be changed if the sentence were written, "Our steamer (it was named the *Batavia*) was a stanch boat."

According to some authorities *who* and *which* should be used only in explanatory clauses, and *that* only in restrictive clauses. While this rule is not always adhered to by good writers, there is a growing tendency to employ *that* rather than *who* or *which* in restrictive clauses.

That is also preferred when the antecedent includes both persons and things; as, I watched the people and carriages *that* filled the street.

296. Punctuation. — An Explanatory Clause should be set off by commas; as, The sea, *which had been rough*, suddenly became smooth.

A Restrictive Clause should not be separated from the word whose meaning it restricts; as, The evil *that men do* lives after them.

EXERCISE 154

Point out each relative pronoun and its antecedent. Tell whether the relative clause is restrictive or explanatory, and give the reason: —

1. This is the book that father gave me.
2. He is fond of fish, which he eats nearly every day.
3. Every word that asserts is called a verb.
4. The man drew a dagger, which he brandished in the air.
5. He that fights and runs away may live to fight another day.
6. Society is a stage on which manners are shown. — EMERSON.
7. I lay down on the grass, which was very short and soft. — SWIFT.
8. A few moments of silence, which none dared to break, followed. — SAND.
9. I hold that gentleman to be best dressed whose dress no one observes. — TROLLOPE.
10. A sharp tongue is the only edged tool that grows sharper by constant use. — IRVING.
11. Lord Palmerston was not a man who took any lofty views of a minister's duties. — MCCARTHY.
12. A dark crimson curtain, which covered a sort of niche or Gothic recess in the wall, rose at the signal. — SCOTT.

See if you can substitute personal pronouns for the relative pronouns in the explanatory clauses in the above exercises; as, He is fond of fish, *and* eats *it* nearly every day.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Define interrogative pronouns. 2. Give an example. 3. What are relative pronouns? Name them. 4. How is each used? 5. Illustrate the omission of the relative pronoun. 6. Explain how the pronoun *what* is used. 7. What kind of dependent clause does *what* introduce? 8. In the sentence, *What he said surprised us all*, name the subject of *surprised;* the object of *said*. 9. What are compound relative pronouns? 10. In the sentence, *He struck whomsoever he met*, what is the direct object of *struck?* of *met?* 11. Illustrate the omission of the relative pronoun. 12. In the following sentences find a restrictive and an explanatory relative clause:—

John found a large sum of money, which he soon spent.
Where is the boy that tends the sheep?

13. How are restrictive and explanatory clauses punctuated?

CHAPTER LXXXIII

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS

297. Tell how the italicized words in the following sentences are used:—

This hat is mine.
This is my hat.
The fire destroyed *many* houses.
Many were made homeless.
Several shots were fired.
Several have left school.
I want *some* sauce.
Some were captured.

It will be seen that some words are adjectives or pronouns according to their **use**. When they modify nouns they are **adjectives**; when they take the place of nouns they are **pronouns**. When such words as *this*, *many*, *several*, and *some* are used as pronouns, they are called **adjective pronouns**.

298. DEFINITION. — **An Adjective Pronoun is an adjective used as a pronoun**; as, *Some* say that the place was bewitched.

EXERCISE 155

1. In the following sentences tell whether each italicized word is used as an adjective or as a pronoun: —

1. *That* was a generous act. 2. How *many* were injured? 3. *One* child after *another* ran down the road. 4. *This* is not John's fault. 5. *What* mountain is that? 6. Will you have *some* butter? 7. *Some* came and some remained away. 8. *Many* are called, but *few* are chosen. 9. *Each* child began to make excuses. 10. Let us have charity for *all*. 11. *Many* boys came. 12. Did he sell *one* of the horses, or *both*?

2. Use the following words in sentences, first as adjectives, and then as adjective pronouns: —

All, many, some, any, several, few, each, both, one, either, this, other, that, neither.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

299. We have found that some words may be used either as pronouns or as adjectives. Such words form two important classes: 1. Demonstratives. 2. Indefinites. We shall first consider the demonstratives.

300. Study the following sentences, and decide whether the italicized words are pronouns or adjectives: —

1. *This* was the noblest Roman of them all. — SHAKESPEARE.
2. *These* were thy charms, but all *these* charms are fled. — GOLDSMITH.
3. *That* bright dream was his last. — HALLECK.
4. *That* was a dreadful mistake. — WEBSTER.

It will be noticed that each italicized word **points out**, or calls attention to, some person or thing. Such words are called **demonstratives**. The only demonstratives are *this* and *that* with their plurals *these* and *those*. ***Demonstrative*** means **pointing out**.

DEFINITION. — **A Demonstrative Pronoun is a pronoun that points out the particular person or thing referred to**; as, *This* is your hat, and *that* is mine.

301. Some special uses of demonstratives should be noted.

1. *This* and *these* refer to persons or things **near the speaker**; *that* and *those*, to persons or things **farther away**: as, —

This knife ought to be sharpened.
That cloud looks like rain.

2. *This* or *these* is often contrasted with *that* or *those*; as, —

You take *that* seat, and I will take *this*.

3. *That* or *those* is sometimes used as a substitute for a noun previously mentioned; as, —

The *winters* of Canada are colder than *those* of Mexico.

EXERCISE 156

In the following sentences pick out the demonstrative words. Tell whether each is singular or plural, whether it is used as an adjective or a pronoun, and what it modifies or stands for: —

1. Look at this picture and then at that.
2. Take this box to the express office.
3. That is a statue of Nathan Hale.
4. Examine this fly with a microscope.
5. Compare these gloves with those.
6. This is a visit I shall long remember.
7. What lighthouse is that in the distance?
8. I remember those quiet October days.
9. We mistook your house for that of Mr. Smith.
10. The richest copper mines of the country are those in Michigan.

CHAPTER LXXXIV

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

302. Notice how the italicized words are used in these sentences: —

Either of the pictures will suit me.
Some were captured; *others* were killed.
Have you *any* of those imported hats?

Either, *some*, *others*, and *any* are evidently pronouns, since they are used instead of nouns, but they do not denote any particular persons or things. Such words are called **indefinite pronouns.**

DEFINITION. — **An Indefinite Pronoun is a pronoun that does not denote any particular person or thing**; as, *Some* are born great.

303. The words commonly considered indefinite pronouns may be classified as follows: —

1. General words of number and quantity: *all*, *any*, *both*, *few*, *many*, *much*, *one* (*none*), *other* (*another*), *several*, *some*, *such*.

2. Distributives: *each*, *either* (*neither*).

3. Reciprocals: *each other*, *one another*.

Nearly all the above words are used either as **adjectives** or as **pronouns.** If they modify nouns, they are not pronouns, but adjectives.

304. Some of the indefinite pronouns are **inflected**; as, *one's* friend; the small *ones*; *another's* sorrow.

305. Compound indefinite pronouns are formed by adding *one*, *thing*, or *body* to simple indefinites; as, *any one*, *some one*, *everything*, *something*, *anybody*. *Else* is frequently used with these pronouns, the whole expression being regarded as a compound pronoun; as, Nobody *else* came

EXERCISE 157

Find the indefinites and tell whether each one is used as a pronoun or as an adjective: —

1. One woe does tread upon another's heels. — Byron.
2. None but the brave deserves the fair. — Dryden.
3. No one can disgrace us but ourselves. — Holland.
4. One must be poor to know the luxury of giving. — Eliot.
5. Be not curious to know the affairs of others. — Washington.
6. We have left all and have followed thee. — Bible.
7. Who has not worshiped some idol or another? — Thackeray.
8. And both were young, and one was beautiful. — Byron.
9. The armies were in the presence of each other. — Thackeray.
10. But soiling another, Annie, will never make one's self clean. — Tennyson.
11. Few, few shall part where many meet. — Campbell.
12. Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them. — Shakespeare.
13. Every real thought on every real subject knocks the wind out of somebody or other. — Holmes.
14. Unto every one that hath shall be given. — Bible.
15. I want no one else's money.
16. None knew thee but to love thee;
    None named thee but to praise. — Halleck.

CHAPTER LXXXV

HOW TO PARSE PRONOUNS

306. To parse a **pronoun**, we state —

1. Its **class**.
2. Its **antecedent** (if it has any).
3. Its **person**.
4. Its **number**.
5. Its **gender** (if this is shown).
6. Its **case**.
7. Its **syntax**, or use in the sentence.

EXAMPLES: 1. I see the lady who helped me.
2. Who repeated what James said?
3. Some say that George himself was here.

1. *I* is a personal pronoun, first person, singular number, common gender, and nominative case, the subject of the verb *see*.

2. *Who* is a relative pronoun, third person, singular number, feminine gender, agreeing with the antecedent *lady*, and nominative case, the subject of the verb *helped;* it connects the dependent clause, *who helped me*, with the principal clause, *I see the lady*.

3. *Me* is a personal pronoun, first person, singular number, common gender, and objective case, the object of the transitive verb *helped*.

4. *Who* is an interrogative pronoun, third person, singular number, common gender, and nominative case, the subject of the verb *repeated*.

5. *What* is a relative pronoun, third person, singular number, neuter gender, and objective case, the object of the verb *said*.

6. *Some* is an indefinite adjective pronoun, third person, plural number, common gender, and nominative case, the subject of the verb *say*.

7. *Himself* is a compound personal pronoun, third person, singular number, masculine gender, agreeing with its antecedent *George*, and nominative case, in apposition with the noun *George*.

EXERCISE 158

Parse the pronouns in the following sentences: —

1. Few die and none resign. — JEFFERSON.
2. None knew thee but to love thee. — HALLECK.
3. Forgive, if ye have aught against any. — BIBLE.
4. Rip soon found many of his former cronies. — IRVING.
5. Read no letters, books, or papers in company. — WASHINGTON.
6. They never fail who die in a great cause. — BYRON.
7. No man is more miserable than he that hath no adversity. — TAYLOR.
8. After a while they came to a thick patch of woodland, through which murmured a clear brook. — STOWE.
9. My particular friends, who were sportsmen, behaved very well. — WARNER.
10. Blessed is he whose heart is the home of the great dead and their great thoughts. — BAILEY.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Use *some, all,* and *each* as pronouns and as adjectives. 2. What are adjective pronouns? 3. What are demonstrative pronouns? Name them. 4. What does *demonstrative* mean? 5. Use *this* and *that* as adjectives and as pronouns. 6. Explain a special use of *this* and *that.* 7. What is an indefinite pronoun? Name five of them. 8. Use an indefinite as an adjective; as a pronoun.

CHAPTER LXXXVI

CLASSES OF ADJECTIVES

307. In a former chapter (XV) it was shown that some adjectives describe persons or things by showing of what kind they are, while others do not describe at all, but simply limit the meaning of the words they modify.

1. *Tall, lanky, awkward* fellows came in squads.
2. Captain Preston ordered *eight* soldiers to follow him.

The adjectives, *tall*, *lanky*, *awkward*, describe the *fellows* by denoting the qualities that belong to them. Such adjectives are called **descriptive** adjectives.

In the second sentence, the adjective *eight* does not express any quality; it does not describe the soldiers; it simply limits the meaning of the noun *soldiers* by showing to how many persons the word applies. Such adjectives are called **limiting** adjectives.

308. DEFINITIONS. — **A Descriptive Adjective is an adjective that shows the *kind* of person or thing referred to**; as, a *beautiful* house; a *running* brook.

A Limiting Adjective is an adjective that restricts the meaning without showing the *kind*; as *twenty* men; *that* tree.

309. Adjectives derived from proper nouns are called

proper adjectives ; as, *Spanish*, from *Spain*. Proper adjectives begin with capital letters.

A pronoun used as an adjective is sometimes called a **pronominal** adjective (§ 277).

EXERCISE 159

1. In the following exercise tell which adjectives are descriptive and which limiting : —

1. A thousand hearts beat happily.
2. Yet beautiful and bright he stood,
   As born to rule the storm,
   A creature of heroic blood,
   A brave though childlike form.
3. I have worked six examples.
4. Every word should be the right word.
5. Smith's store is at the upper end of the street.
6. Mississippi produces much cottonseed oil.
7. An archipelago is a cluster of islands.
8. I remember the roses, red and white.
9. Mr. Bennett lives in that red house.
10. Turn to the fifty-sixth page.
11. We sell twenty pounds of good sugar for one dollar.
12. The long grass is waving in the gentle breeze.
13. Forty rods make one furlong.
14. Many people ran out of their houses.

2. Form a proper adjective from each of these proper nouns : —

America	Germany	China	Wales
England	France	Japan	Cuba
Ireland	Spain	Greece	Kentucky
Scotland	Portugal	Egypt	Brazil
Canada	Norway	Italy	Hungary
Mexico	Sweden	Turkey	Virginia
California	Denmark	Austria	Asia

CHAPTER LXXXVII

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES — I

310. The following sentences illustrate the **inflection of adjectives:** —

Fred is a *large* boy.
George is a *larger* boy than Fred.
Frank is the *largest* boy in school.

In the first sentence, the adjective *large* modifies *boy*. Only one boy is spoken of. In the second sentence, George is compared with Fred by changing the form of the adjective to *larger*. In the third sentence, Frank is compared with all the other boys in school by changing the form to *largest*.

The forms *large*, *larger*, and *largest* all express the same quality, but in different degrees. Such a change in the form of an adjective to express degree is called **comparison**.

311. These three forms are called the **positive** degree, the **comparative** degree, and the **superlative** degree.

312. The positive degree is used when no direct comparison is made. It expresses the simple **quality**; as, This is a *tall* tree.

313. The comparative degree is used when one object (or class) is compared with another. It expresses a **higher** (or lower) degree of the quality; as, This tree is *taller* than that. Elms are *taller* than maples.

314. The superlative degree is used when one object (or class) is compared with two or more other objects. It expresses the **highest** (or lowest) degree of the quality; as, This is the *tallest* tree in the grove.

315. DEFINITION. — **Comparison is a change in the form of an adjective to express quality in different degrees.**

316. The positive degree is the **simple** form of the adjective; as, *large*, *smooth*.

The comparative degree is formed by adding **er** to the positive; as, *larger*, *smoother*.

The superlative degree is formed by adding **est** to the positive; as, *largest*, *smoothest*.

317. Notice the following changes in spelling when the endings *er* and *est* are added: —

1. If the positive ends in *e*, the *e* is dropped: —

brave	braver	bravest
handsome	handsomer	handsomest
feeble	feebler	feeblest

2. If the positive ends in *y*, preceded by a consonant, the *y* is changed to *i*: —

happy	happier	happiest
merry	merrier	merriest
dry	drier	driest

3. Adjectives of one syllable ending in a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, double the consonant: —

sad	sadder	saddest
hot	hotter	hottest
slim	slimmer	slimmest

EXERCISE 160

Write out the comparison of the following adjectives: —

Sweet, large, fast, strong, weak, angry, dull, sharp, rough, strange, noble, bright, narrow, rich, silly, mellow, fine, fat, sublime, wealthy, flat, lame, plain, handy, healthy, glad.

CHAPTER LXXXVIII

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES—II

318. Many adjectives are compared, not by adding *er* and *est* to the positive, but by prefixing the adverbs *more* and *most* (or *less* and *least*).

Mary is an *attentive* pupil.
Mary is *more attentive* than her sister.
Mary is the *most attentive* pupil in the class.

What degree of comparison is used in the second sentence? How is it formed? What degree is used in the third sentence? How is it formed?

319. Comparison by means of the endings *er* and *est* is called **inflectional** or **regular** comparison. Comparison by means of *more* and *most* (or *less* and *least*) is called **adverbial** comparison. Why?

320. When shall we use the *regular* and when the *adverbial* method of comparison?

1. Adjectives of *one* syllable are compared by adding *er* and *est;* as, *strong, stronger, strongest.*

2. Some adjectives of *two* syllables are compared by adding *er* and *est*, and others by prefixing *more* and *most* (or *less* and *least*). The ear is the best guide in deciding which method of comparison to use. If the forms in *er* and *est* are awkward to pronounce or disagreeable in sound, use the adverbial comparison; as, *heavy, heavier, heaviest; famous, more famous, most famous.*

Some adjectives may be compared by both methods; as, *noble, nobler, noblest;* or, *noble, more noble, most noble.*

3. Adjectives of *three* or *more* syllables are compared by prefixing *more* and *most* (or *less* and *least*); as, *terrible, more terrible, most terrible.*

EXERCISE 161

Compare these adjectives : —

Able, probable, fearless, complete, beautiful, shady, delightful, brief, generous, pretty, patient, anxious, useful, terrible, populous, noble, tender, happy.

CHAPTER LXXXIX

IRREGULAR COMPARISON

321. The following adjectives are **irregular** in their comparison. In some instances the comparative and superlative are not formed from the positive, but are borrowed from other adjectives.

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
good	better	best
bad, evil, ill	worse	worst
little	less, lesser	least
much, many	more	most
near	nearer	nearest, next
far	farther	farthest
	further	furthest
late	later, latter	latest, last
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
well (in health)	better	

There are a few irregular superlatives ending in *most*. The forms inclosed in parentheses are not used as adjectives.

hind	hinder	hindmost, hindermost
fore	former	first, foremost
(in)	inner	inmost, innermost
(out)	outer utter	outmost, outermost utmost, uttermost
(up)	upper	upmost, uppermost

A few other superlatives in *most* are found; as *topmost*, *endmost*, *nethermost*, *northernmost*, etc.

322. Superlatives are sometimes used to denote the presence of a quality in a **very high degree**, without any direct comparison; as, It was a *most generous* gift.

323. Most **descriptive** adjectives admit of comparison. But some of this class denote qualities which from the nature of their meaning cannot vary in degree; as, *right*, *wrong*, *square*, *triangular*, *three-cornered*, *wooden*, *daily*, *annual*, *eternal*, *infinite*, *occasional*, *arctic*, *solar*, and all **proper** adjectives.

Strictly speaking, if a thing is perfect, for example, another cannot be more so, and yet there is good authority for such expressions as, "This is a *more perfect* specimen than that." Here *more perfect* means *more nearly perfect*.

324. Most **limiting** adjectives do not admit of comparison. The important exceptions are two adjectives of number, *many* and *few*, and two of quantity, *much* and *little*.

325. The use of **double** comparatives or double superlatives was once common in English. We find in Shakespeare, *more better*, *more braver*, *most worst*, *most unkindest*, but such expressions are not used by good writers of the present day.

EXERCISE 162

1. Compare the following adjectives:—

Cheerful, humble, honest, uneasy, bad, thick, damp, many, extravagant, good, feeble, neat, thin, stingy, dry, lofty, famous, gloomy, sleepy, dishonest, trusty, broad, merciful, religious, wicked, innocent, simple, chilly, sudden, elegant.

2. Use an appropriate descriptive adjective with each of the following nouns:—

Picture, fire, summer, wind, rocks, waves, sky, gardens, morning, breeze, air, roses, weather, haze, gale, steamer, cold, jewels, tower, story, brook, embers, chasm, eyes, face, landscape, meadows.

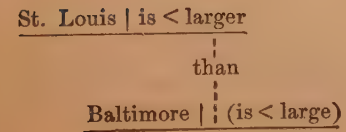
EXERCISE 163

Pick out the adjectives and tell the degree of comparison. Compare each adjective that is capable of comparison. Tell whether the comparison is inflectional or adverbial.

1. Texas raises more cotton than any other state.
2. Clever men are good, but they are not the best.
3. The Pacific Ocean is much wider than the Atlantic.
4. Hemp makes stronger and more durable cloth than flax.
5. The lowest branches of the coffee tree are the largest.
6. It is much easier to be critical than to be correct.
7. The tallest olive trees are twenty or thirty feet high.
8. The sardine is a fish of the herring tribe, but smaller.
9. No food supports a greater number of people than rice.
10. Rye, oats, and barley grow in a higher latitude than wheat.
11. Belgium has the densest population of any country in Europe.
12. Clouds float in the sky because they are lighter than the air.
13. The most celebrated granite quarries in Massachusetts are at Quincy.
14. Marble is so much softer than granite that it may be sawed like wood.
15. One of the most important products of North Carolina is turpentine.
16. New Orleans is situated at the gateway of the most productive valley in North America.

326. ANALYSIS. — Clauses introduced by *than*.

St. Louis is larger than Baltimore.



This is a complex sentence. The predicate is often omitted after *as* and *than*. To complete the analysis of this sentence, the predicate *is large* is supplied. The clause, *Baltimore is large*, modifies *larger*.

CHAPTER XC

LIMITING ADJECTIVES

327. We have found that adjectives are divided into two great classes.

1. Descriptive; as, a *shaggy* dog. 2. Limiting; as, *twenty* sheep; *every* house.

328. **Limiting** adjectives may be divided into the following classes: —

(*a*) Numeral: Those that denote number.

A *cardinal* numeral is a numeral that answers the question, How many? as, *two* boys; *fifty* pages.

An *ordinal* numeral is a numeral that shows the order in which a person or thing stands in a series; as, the *second* boy; the *fiftieth* page.

The cardinal numerals are often used as *nouns;* as, *Five* of the passengers were injured.

(*b*) Demonstrative: Those that point out the particular person or thing referred to; as, *that* book.

(*c*) Indefinite: Those that do not refer to any particular person or thing; as, *any* book.

Demonstrative and indefinite adjectives have already been explained in §§ 299–304.

EXERCISE 164

Tell whether the italicized words are used as nouns, as pronouns, or as adjectives. Classify the adjectives as numerals, demonstratives, or indefinites.

1. *All* men are mortal. 2. *Few* are free from faults. 3. *Many* people came. 4. *Several* were late. 5. *Two* or *three* went home early. 6. Have you *any* peanuts? If so, I will take *some*. 7. *Some* countries depend on rice for support. 8. What do you think of *that?* 9. There are *several* varieties of maize. 10. *Some* maintain that the potato was first found in Virginia; *others* say it is a native of South America.

CHAPTER XCI

SPECIAL USES OF ADJECTIVES

329. An adjective that directly modifies a noun is called an **attributive** adjective; as, Up rose the *glorious* sun.

An adjective that completes the predicate and indirectly modifies the subject, is called a **predicate** adjective; as, Our leader is *frank* and *bold*.

An adjective that is loosely attached to a noun or pronoun like a word in apposition is called an **appositive** adjective; as, The Isles of Shoals, *barren*, *bleak*, and *bare*, were seen in the distance.

EXERCISE 165

Examine each adjective and tell whether it illustrates the attributive, predicate, or appositive use: —

1. Mr. Gathergold had small, sharp eyes. — HAWTHORNE.
2. Tender men sometimes have strong wills. — W. BLACK.
3. The sweetest flowers are ever frail and fair. — SHELLEY.
4. Franklin had a great genius, original, sagacious, and inventive. — JOHN ADAMS.
5. Ernest grew up to be a mild, quiet, unobtrusive boy. — HAWTHORNE.
6. The sober second thought of the people is seldom wrong. — VAN BUREN.
7. Oh! blue were violets in our youth, and blue were April skies. — R. MCINTYRE.
8. The lonely footpath, still and dark, led over hill and dale. — BLOOMFIELD.
9. Grand, gloomy, and peculiar, Napoleon sat upon the throne a sceptered hermit. — C. PHILLIPS.
10. A heavy smoke hung around the black buildings and the dirty quays. — DICKENS.

11. Now I could see those three rough arches, jagged, black, and terrible. — BLACKMORE.

12. There are seven pillars, massy and gray,
Dim with a dull, imprisoned ray. — BYRON.

13. Severe, spotless, and beautiful, Lady Gaunt held the very highest place in Vanity Fair. — THACKERAY.

14. The sky was blue, the air was mild;
Free were the streams and green the berries. — WORDSWORTH.

15. At the foot of the mountain they came upon a river, deep but not wide, with low, grassy banks. — WILLIAM MORRIS.

Appositive adjectives are set off by commas.

330. Nouns used as adjectives. — The use of nouns as adjectives is very common in English; as, *winter* sports; *sea* monsters; a *lake* port. Phrases could be employed to express the same meaning; as, sports *adapted to winter;* monsters *living in the sea;* a port *situated on a lake.*

EXERCISE 166

Shorten the following phrases into nouns used as adjectives: —

1. A cottage for summer. 2. The wall of the garden. 3. Currents of the ocean. 4. A race with boats. 5. The business of buying and selling grain. 6. A palace constructed of marble. 7. The election held in November. 8. Trees bearing apples. 9. Life in the army. 10. An agent who sells books.

331. Adjectives used as nouns. — Adjectives are often used as nouns.

1. As plural nouns denoting persons; as, —

The wicked (wicked people) flee when no man pursueth, but the righteous (righteous people) are bold as a lion.

2. As singular nouns denoting quality or quantity: as, —

He appreciates *the beautiful* (that which is beautiful).
He did *his best* = he put forth his *best effort.*

3. Some adjectives actually become nouns, so that they are used in both numbers: —

(*a*) Those derived from proper nouns; as, *Canadians.*

(*b*) Some denoting persons; as, *juniors, seniors, natives, mortals, inferiors, whites, blacks,* etc.

(*c*) A few denoting things; as, *secrets, totals, solids.*

(*d*) Some used as nouns only in the plural; as, *morals, bitters, greens.*

CHAPTER XCII

SUBSTITUTES FOR ADJECTIVES

332. The work of an adjective is to modify a noun or pronoun. It follows that any **word, phrase,** or **clause** that does this work is an **adjective modifier.**

1. A noun or pronoun in the possessive case; as, *Longfellow's* residence; *your* father.

2. A noun in apposition; as, Champlain, the *explorer.*

3. A noun used as an adjective; as, a *meadow* brook.

4. An adverb; as, the rain is *over;* John is *here.*

5. A phrase; as, children *at school;* boys *playing ball.*

6. A clause; as, the boy *who tends the sheep.*

It often happens that one adjective modifier may be substituted for another without changing the meaning.

EXERCISE 167

In the following sentences express the italicized words in as many different ways as you can: —

1. He lives in a *six-room* house. 2. We have passed a night *without sleep.* 3. The boy sat on a *three-legged* stool. 4. We climbed a *wooded* hill. 5. He is a *kind-hearted* man. 6. He watches the sky at the *twilight* hour. 7. I like *home-made* pastry. 8. *Pewter* decanters lined the shelf. 9. We need men *of courage.* 10. I like entertainments *which come in the evening.* 11. The rider, *who had no skill,* was thrown from his horse. 12. The river was spanned by a bridge *of iron.* 13. *Strong* men make good pioneers. 14. We pitched our tent on a *grassy* bank. 15. Who is that *dark-eyed* woman?

CHAPTER XCIII

HOW TO PARSE ADJECTIVES

333. To parse an **adjective**, we tell, (1) its **class**, (2) its **degree** of comparison (if it can be compared), (3) its **syntax** or use in the sentence.

EXAMPLE: *That* boy is *taller* than you.

That is a demonstrative adjective modifying the noun *boy*.

Taller is a descriptive adjective of the comparative degree (compare it). It completes the meaning of the verb *is* and modifies the noun *boy*.

EXERCISE 168

Parse the adjectives in the following selection. Find examples of nouns used as adjectives, and of adjectives used as nouns.

The December sun shone clear and cold upon the city. It shone upon the rich and the poor alike. It shone into the homes of the wealthy on the avenues and in the uptown streets, and into courts and alleys hedged in by towering tenements down town. It shone upon throngs of busy holiday shoppers that went in and out at the great stores, carrying bundles big and small, all alike filled with Christmas cheer and kindly messages from Santa Claus. — JACOB A. RIIS.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is a descriptive adjective? A limiting adjective? A proper adjective? 2. Define comparison. 3. Explain two methods of comparison. 4. What is each method called? 5. What adjectives are compared by each method? 6. Compare *merry*, *sad*, *important*, *heavy*, *terrible*. 7. Mention five adjectives that are compared irregularly and compare them. 8. Mention five descriptive adjectives that do not admit of comparison. 9. Use an appropriate descriptive adjective with each of these nouns: *ship*, *peaches*, *bells*, *repast*, *talker*. 10. Define numeral adjective; demonstrative adjective; indefinite adjective. 11. Illustrate the attributive use of adjectives; the predicate use; the appositive use. 12. Name five kinds of adjective modifiers.

CHAPTER XCIV

INFLECTION OF THE VERB

334. We have found that nouns and pronouns change their forms to show different relations; as, *boy*, *boy's*; *you*, *your*; *he*, *him*. In the same way **verbs have different forms to express different meanings.** For example, some of the changes of form which the verb *see* may undergo, are: I *see* the moon; he *sees* the moon; he *saw* the moon; the moon *was seen*; he *will see* the moon; he *has seen* the moon; he tried *to see* the moon; *seeing* the moon.

Notice that some of the above changes in the meaning of the verb are indicated by changes in the form of the **word itself**; as, *see*, *sees*, *saw*, *seeing*, while others are indicated by means of **verb-phrases** formed by the help of auxiliary verbs (§ 65); as, *was seen*, *will see*, *has seen*. We have learned (§ 196) that a change in the form of a word to indicate some modification of its meaning, is called **inflection.**

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

335. Compare the following sentences:—

1. My uncle built this house.
2. This house was built by my uncle.

In both of the above sentences the word *uncle* names the **doer** of the action expressed by the verb, and the word *house* names the **receiver** of the action.

In 1, the name of the **doer** is the **subject** of the verb and the name of the **receiver** is the **object.**

In 2, the name of the **receiver** is the **subject,** and the name of the **doer** is governed by the preposition *by*. The two sentences express the same thought, but the form is different.

336. When the **doer** of an action expressed by a transitive verb is the **subject**, the verb is said to be in the **active voice.** When the **receiver** is the subject, the verb is said to be in the **passive voice.**

337. The word *passive* means **suffering.** The subject of a verb in the passive voice receives or *suffers* the action denoted by the verb.

338. Since the object of a verb in the active voice becomes the subject of the passive form, it follows that an **intransitive verb can have no passive voice**, because such a verb has no object. But there are a few seeming exceptions where an intransitive verb and a preposition are so closely united in meaning as to form a sort of compound transitive verb which has a passive voice; as, They *laughed at* him; He was *laughed at.* We *spoke of* you; You *were spoken of.* They *ran over* a man; A man *was run over.*

339. DEFINITIONS.—**Voice is a change in the form of a transitive verb that shows whether the subject is the doer or the receiver of an action.**

The Active Voice is the form of a transitive verb that represents the subject as the doer of an action.

The Passive Voice is the form of a transitive verb that represents the subject as the receiver of an action.

340. The name of the **doer**, after a passive form, is called the **agent.** The name of the doer or agent is often omitted, when it is unknown, unimportant, or easily understood; as, *The house was built long ago.*

341. Only Transitive Verbs have passive forms.

EXERCISE 169

In the following sentences tell which verbs are active and which are passive. Name the doer and the receiver of the action expressed by each verb.

1. Irving wrote the "Sketch Book."
2. Moccasins are worn by Indians.
3. Charles was praised by his teacher.
4. The farmers opened the flood gates.
5. Mr. Long's house was destroyed by fire.
6. The room was lighted up by the moon.
7. All grocers sell flour, tea, and coffee.
8. Evangeline lighted the lamp on the table.
9. Nova Scotia was called Acadia by the French.
10. Ichabod heard the barking of the watchdog.
11. "Evangeline" was written by Henry W. Longfellow.
12. The village of Deerfield was attacked by the Indians.
13. The battle of New Orleans was won by Andrew Jackson.
14. The village of Buffalo was burned by the British in 1813.
15. Father Hennepin discovered and named the falls of St. Anthony.

Select all the verb-phrases in the last exercise.

EXERCISE 170

Tell whether each verb is active or passive. Change the voice of each verb, and explain what change takes place in the structure of the sentence: —

1. La Salle explored the Mississippi River.
2. Daniel Boone was captured by the Indians.
3. The French surrendered Quebec to the English in 1759.
4. Congress admitted Indiana to the Union in 1816.
5. De Soto crossed the state of Alabama in 1540.
6. The Erie Canal was planned by De Witt Clinton.
7. Henry Hudson discovered the Delaware River.
8. Alexander Graham Bell invented the telephone.
9. Cadillac built a fort at Detroit in 1701.
10. The secret of vulcanizing rubber was discovered by Charles Goodyear.
11. John Q. Adams was elected President by the House of Representatives.
12. General James Oglethorpe brought thirty-five families to Georgia in 1732.

13. The first street-car line from Boston to Cambridge was opened in 1856.

14. In 1883, Congress authorized President Arthur to appoint a Civil Service Commission.

15. The cornerstone of Bunker Hill Monument was laid by General Lafayette in 1825.

Find four adjective phrases and eight adverbial phrases in the last exercise.

CHAPTER XCV

MODE OF VERBS

342. In the following sentences notice how each verb is used: —

1. The soldiers seized their weapons.
2. If thy right hand offend thee, cut it off.
3. Give me another horse!

In the first sentence the verb *seized* states a fact; in the second, *offend* expresses a mere supposition; in the third, *Give* expresses a command. It follows that an action or state may be asserted (1) as a fact, (2) as something merely thought of, or (3) as a command. These different ways in which the action or state denoted by the verb may be thought of, are called Modes. *Mode* means **manner.**

The three modes explained above are called (1) the Indicative, (2) the Subjunctive, (3) the Imperative.

343. DEFINITIONS. — **Mode is a change in the form or use of a verb that shows the manner in which an assertion is made.**

The Indicative Mode is used to state a fact or ask a question: as, The wind *blew* from the east. Who *goes* there?

The Subjunctive Mode is used to express something as merely thought of and not as a fact; as, I wish my brother *were* here.

The Imperative Mode is used to express a command or an entreaty; as, *Charge* for the guns! *Disperse*, ye rebels! *Help* me, Cassius.

INDICATIVE MODE

344. The Indicative Mode is used: —

(*a*) In statements of fact; as, We *crossed* the river.

(*b*) In questions about facts; as, Who *defeated* Napoleon?

(*c*) In conditions assumed as facts; as, If we *have* laws, we ought to obey them.

345. Indicative means **stating** or **pointing out.** The indicative mode deals with **facts**, and is the mode commonly employed in making statements and asking questions.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

346. The Subjunctive Mode is used to express: —

(*a*) A wish, prayer, or desire; as, O that he *were* here! Thy kingdom *come*. Long *live* the king!

(*b*) A supposition or condition contrary to fact; as, If I *were* you [but I am not], I should go. If there *were* room [but there is none], we should admit you.

(*c*) A present or future uncertainty; as, If it *be* pleasant to-morrow [we do not know whether it will be or not], we shall go.

347. The Subjunctive Mode is so called because it is usually **subjoined** to another sentence. It stands alone only when it expresses a **wish**, and even then it is subordinate in thought. "Long live the king" means "I wish that the king live long."

The Subjunctive cannot be used to assert a fact or to inquire about a fact. It expresses **wishes, suppositions,**

conditions; it represents action or being as merely conceived of by the mind rather than as an actual fact.

The Subjunctive will be considered more fully in later lessons (§§ 544–557).

IMPERATIVE MODE

348. The Imperative Mode is used to express: —

(*a*) A command; as, *Bring* me my coat.

(*b*) An entreaty; as, *Give* us this day our daily bread.

As commands must be addressed to some person or thing, it follows that the use of the imperative is confined to the *second* person. This is always the unchanged form of the verb; as, *Come* to me; *Go* away.

The imperative mode has already been explained under imperative sentences (§ 23).

EXERCISE 171

In the following sentences tell the mode of each italicized verb, and give a reason for your opinion: —

1. *Seek*, and you *shall find*.
2. O that my friend *were* here!
3. *Hew* down the bridge, Sir Consul.
4. And merrily *ran* the years, seven happy years.
5. Evangeline's steps *echoed* sadly on the stairway.
6. The bell *rang* softly from the ivy-covered tower.
7. If it *be* Sunday, the peasants *read* their psalm books.
8. If these things *were* true, I should pity him.
9. After a few minutes' pause, the game *was resumed*.
10. Though he *slay* me, yet *will* I *trust* in him.
11. The dog *looked* up wistfully into his master's face.
12. Where *did* you *get* your eyes so blue?
13. If he *were* here, he would gladly help us.
14. If Washington *were* alive, what would he think?
15. The man acted as if he *were* insane.

CHAPTER XCVI

TENSE OF VERBS

349. There are three divisions of time: the present, the past, and the future. An action or event may be represented as occurring in any one of these divisions of time.

The sailor *sees* the signal.
The sailor *saw* the signal.
The sailor *will see* the signal.

Name the verb in each of the above sentences. What time is indicated by each form of the verb?

Sees indicates present time, *saw* indicates past time, and *will see* indicates future time. The change in the form of verbs to show the time of the action is called **tense.**

350. DEFINITIONS. — **Tense is a change in the form of a verb to show the time of the action.**

A verb indicating present time is said to be in the present tense; as, He *hears* the bell.

A verb indicating past time is said to be in the past tense; as, He *heard* the bell.

A verb indicating future time is said to be in the future tense; as, He *will hear* the bell.

NOTE. — The present tense is sometimes used for the future; as, We *storm* the fort *to-morrow.* Likewise the present is sometimes used for the past; as, Cæsar *crosses* the Rubicon.

EXERCISE 172

Select the verbs in the following sentences and tell the time, or tense, of each: —

1. I heard the roar of the cannon.
2. Summer will bring the flowers.
3. My brother brought home a new sled.

4. He writes his exercises well.
5. He wrote a long letter yesterday.
6. A cloud of mist hovers over the mountain.
7. The chimney sent up a cloud of smoke.
8. Will it rain to-morrow?
9. Down jumps the farmer with fork in hand.
10. The old clock struck twelve.
11. Will the building be finished on time?
12. The fire destroyed four houses.
13. In the tower hangs an old bell.
14. I see the boy who stole the apples.
15. I shall return next Saturday.

CHAPTER XCVII

PERSON AND NUMBER OF VERBS

351. A verb is said to be in the same person and number as its subject. For example, in the sentence, "I study arithmetic," the subject *I* is in the first person singular number; so we say that the verb *study* is in the first person and singular number. In other words, a verb takes its person and number from its subject.

EXERCISE 173

Tell the person and number of each verb in the following sentences, and give reasons: —

1. I am ready. 2. They are here. 3. He is absent. 4. We will start. 5. Thou art the man. 6. Now, girls, you must study. 7. Where is George? 8. Who told you? 9. She told me. 10. They spoke well. 11. What is it? 12. We have just returned. 13. Jennie, come to me. 14. Thou shalt not steal. 15. Consent thou not. 16. Lovest thou me?

352. While a verb is always in the same person and number as its subject, this does not mean that the verb

has a different form for every person and number. In some instances, however, the verb undergoes a change of form when there is a change in the person and number of the subject, as we see in the following : —

1. I *play* ball.
2. He *plays* ball.
3. He *was* at home.
4. They *were* at home.

Notice that *play*, in 1, is used with a subject of the first person, and *plays*, in 2, with a subject of the third person. It is evident that the **form** of the verb sometimes depends on the **person** of the subject.

Notice that *was*, in 3, is used with a singular subject and that *were*, in 4, is used with a plural subject. It is evident that the **form** of the verb sometimes depends on the **number** of the subject.

353. A verb must agree with its subject in person and number.

354. Verbs expressing natural operations, like those pertaining to the weather, are called **impersonal verbs**, meaning **without person**, because the subject (which is regularly the pronoun *it*) does not refer to any definite person or thing; as, It rains. It hails. How it thunders!

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Use the following verbs transitively and intransitively: *hide, shake, spread, stop.* 2. Make a sentence with a verb in the active voice. 3. Change the sentence to the passive voice. Explain the change. 4. What does passive mean? 5. What is meant by the doer of an action? The receiver? 6. What becomes of the object of a transitive verb when the verb is changed to the passive form? Illustrate. 7. What kind of verbs have passive forms? 8. Explain the passive form in *He was laughed at.*

9. What is mode? 10. Name three modes. 11. Describe and illustrate three uses of the indicative mode. 12. Three of the subjunctive mode. 13. Two of the imperative mode. 14. What is tense? 15. Give examples of the present, past, and future tenses. 16. What determines the person and number of a verb?

CHAPTER XCVIII

VERBALS

355. We have thus far studied the verb "as a word that tells or asserts something about the subject." We shall now consider some forms of the verb that have no power of asserting.

An examination of the following expressions will bring out the difference between a verb-form that **asserts** and one that **does not assert**: —

1. The farmer *hitched* his horse.
2. *Reaching* Savannah the next day.
3. To *waste* valuable time.
4. By *employing* twenty men for a month.

Each italicized word in the above expressions is a verb-form, since it expresses action and takes an object. But in other respects these verb-forms are not all alike. In **1**, the word *hitched* not only expresses action, but asserts that the *farmer* performed the action. *Farmer* is the subject of the verb *hitched*. But the other three expressions are not sentences, because the verb-forms do not assert anything.

EXERCISE 174

Tell which of these verb-forms can by themselves (with or without an object) make an assertion; that is, be used as a predicate: —

Went, took, giving, walked, driving, to wait, strikes, help, blowing, broken, write, writing, written, to write, yelled, came, burns, scamper.

356. Verb-forms that do not assert anything are called **Verbals.** Such verb-forms partake of the nature of verbs and of some other part of speech. Verbals include **Infinitives, Participles,** and **Gerunds.**

CHAPTER XCIX

INFINITIVES

357. In the following sentences the italicized words are verbals: —

1. Laura has learned *to speak* French quite well.
2. Carrie forgot *to do* the errand.
3. *To read* good books improves one's mind.

In 1, *to speak* is evidently a verb-form, because it expresses action, takes an object, and is modified by an adverb. But it is not like the other verbs we have studied, because it does not have a subject, and does not assert anything. It is used like a noun, since it is the object of the verb *has learned*.

In 2, *to do* resembles a verb, since it expresses action and takes an object. It resembles a noun, since it is the object of the transitive verb *forgot*.

In 3, what is the subject of the verb *improves? What* improves the mind? The verb-form *to read* is evidently used like a noun, since it is the subject of the sentence.

358. Verb-forms like *to speak*, *to do*, and *to read*, which are made by placing the preposition *to* before the simple form of the verb, are called **Infinitives.**

359. DEFINITION. — **An Infinitive is a verbal commonly preceded by the sign *to*, and used partly like a verb, and partly like a noun.**

360. The infinitive sign *to* is omitted after *auxiliaries*, also after the verbs *bid*, *dare*, *let*, *make*, *need*, *hear*, and *see*.

An infinitive may be active (*to love*) or passive (*to be loved*), and may express present action (*to love*), or completed action (*to have loved*). The tense of an infinitive is relative only. In the sentence, "I expected *to begin* yesterday," *to begin* is present with reference to the time expressed by *expected*.

Infinitive means **unlimited.** A verb that is used with a subject must agree with that subject in person and number. We say, I *run*, he *runs*, he *is*, they *are*, but there is no change in the form of the infinitive, no matter what the subject of the sentence may be. We may use *I*, *you*, *he*, *they*, or any word we choose as the subject of sentence 1, above, but the form of the infinitive does not change. Hence this verb-form is called infinitive, the **unlimited** form.

361. An infinitive, with its complements and modifiers, is called an **infinitive phrase.**

362. DEFINITION. — **An Infinitive Phrase is a phrase introduced by an infinitive**; as, Try *to help me*.

363. When an infinitive phrase is used like a noun, as the subject or object of a verb, or as an appositive, it is a **Noun Phrase** (§ 387).

EXERCISE 175

1. Form infinitives from these verbs and use them in sentences: —

Begin, blow, buy, catch, do, find, drink, know, make, read, see, sleep, strike, sweep, write.

2. Find the infinitives in the following sentences, and tell whether each infinitive is a subject or an object: —

1. They love to see the flaming forge.
2. The driver began to whip his horse.
3. To copy a whole page is rather tiresome.
4. Offer to carry the lady's satchel.
5. To waste valuable time is unwise.
6. It is impossible to cross the river.
7. The carpenter undertook to do the work alone.
8. I now tried to sit up and paddle the boat.
9. The Indians continued to harass the frontier settlements.
10. To escape from our dangerous position was no easy matter.
11. I fear to undertake this difficult task.
12. I attempted to land upon the Cape of the Woods.
13. Only an inventor knows how to borrow. — EMERSON.

EXERCISE 176

Tell in what respect each infinitive in the above sentences is like a verb, and in what respect like a noun.

Find the infinitive phrases in the above sentences.

364. ANALYSIS. — Infinitives used as nouns.

1. To read good books improves one's mind.
2. It is easy to find fault.

To read > books | improves > mind
good | one's

In sentence 1, the infinitive phrase *To read good books* is the subject. The line drawn above shows that these words are used as a part of speech.

It = to find > fault | is < easy

In sentence 2, the infinitive phrase is used as a noun in apposition with the pronoun *it* (§ 238).

EXERCISE 177

Analyze orally or by diagram the following sentences: —

1. It is dangerous to live in swampy places.
2. It requires much skill to handle machinery.
3. It took us boys two days to get there.
4. It is difficult to climb to the summit of Mt. Blanc.
5. It was his ambition to be a painter.
6. It is better to wear out than to rust out.
7. Is it good for your health to work at night?
8. It is more blessed to give than to receive.
9. It is now possible to cross the Atlantic in about five days.
10. It is not easy to speak justly of our own work.
11. He offered to carry my satchel.
12. It is unwise to waste valuable time.
13. The man undertook to make the journey alone.
14. The enemy continued to fire through the night.
15. To live temperately is essential to health.
16. They attempted to escape through the pass.
17. The men began to rush from the building.

CHAPTER C

INFINITIVES AS MODIFIERS

365. In the last chapter we found that the infinitive resembles a **noun.** In the following sentences the infinitives are used as **modifiers,** like adjectives or adverbs.

1. We have no water *to drink.*
2. Few children were *to be seen.*
3. A sower went forth *to sow.*
4. The hunter failed *to kill* the deer.
5. They were all anxious *to begin.*

In 1, the infinitive *to drink* modifies the noun *water:* water *to drink* = water for drinking, or *drinking* water. *To drink* is used like an adjective.

In 2, *to be seen* is used like a predicate adjective (§ 82) to complete the meaning of *were.* *To be seen* = visible.

In 3, *to sow* is used like an adverb to modify the verb *went;* it shows *for what purpose* the sower went forth.

In 4, *to kill* is used like an adverb to modify the verb *failed.* It shows *in what respect* the hunter failed.

In 5, *to begin* is used like an adverb to modify the adjective *anxious.* It shows *in what respect* they were anxious. They were anxious *about beginning.*

366. The infinitive may be used as a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

EXERCISE 178

In the following sentences tell what each infinitive modifies; show whether the infinitive is used as an adjective or an adverb: —

1. There is no time to waste. 2. I have some apples to sell. 3. I have come to tell you the news. 4. Have you any money to spare? 5. I walked two miles to hear the lecture. 6. He seems to

study hard. 7. This is a good place to eat our luncheon. 8. His work is to be commended. 9. The Emperor and all his court came out to meet us. 10. That man is not to be trusted. 11. I was sorry to find the doctor out. 12. I had still a little money to spend. 13. All were eager to listen to his story. 14. Everything he undertook was sure to fail. 15. Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast.

EXERCISE 179

1. Make sentences, each containing one of the following verbs modified by an infinitive: —

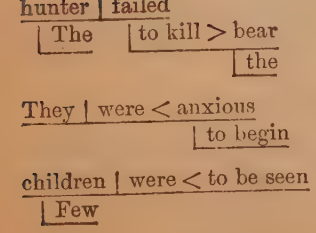
Live, worked, went, strive, stay, eat, stopped, came, remained, rejoice, met, longed, waited, fail.

2. Make sentences, each containing one of the following adjectives modified by an infinitive: —

Anxious, eager, unwilling, happy, sorry, glad, content, ashamed, unable, ready, quick, hard, easy, fortunate.

367. ANALYSIS. — Infinitives used as modifiers.

1. The hunter failed to kill the bear.
2. They were anxious to begin.
3. Few children were to be seen.



In sentence 1, the infinitive is used adverbially to modify the verb *failed;* in sentence 2, the infinitive is used adverbially to modify the adjective *anxious;* in sentence 3, the infinitive is used like an adjective, as the complement of the verb *were.*

Analyze orally or by diagram the sentences in Exercise 178.

CHAPTER CI

PARTICIPLES

368. In the following sentences we have verbals of another kind: —

1. We found Frank earnestly *studying* his lesson.
2. Completely *forgotten* by friends, the old man died in poverty.
3. Islands are bodies of land entirely *surrounded* by water.

The word *studying*, as used in sentence 1, evidently partakes of the nature of a verb, for it expresses action, is modified by the adverb *earnestly*, and has the noun *lesson* as a direct object. It also partakes of the nature of an adjective, for it modifies the noun *Frank*.

In sentence 2, *forgotten* is used like a verb, since it expresses action and is modified by the adverb *completely* and the adverbial phrase *by friends*. It is used like an adjective, since it modifies the noun *man*.

In what respect is *surrounded*, in 3, like a verb? In what respect is it like an adjective?

It will be seen that the words *studying*, *forgotten*, and *surrounded* are partly verbs and partly adjectives. They express action like verbs, and modify nouns like adjectives.

369. Such words are called **participles**, because they partake of, or participate in, the nature of both verbs and adjectives.

370. Participles are verbal adjectives.

371. Notice that a participle does not make an assertion. In the first sentence above, there is no assertion that Frank *was* studying. The *studying* is assumed or taken for granted, not asserted. The participle describes Frank as he appeared when *found;* it simply pictures him as *studying*.

372. A participle sometimes loses its verbal force to such an extent that it becomes a mere descriptive adjective; as, A home on the *rolling* deep.

373. DEFINITIONS. — **A Participle is a verbal that expresses action like a verb and modifies a noun or pronoun like an adjective**; as, A stranger *wearing* a long coat arrived.

There are two simple participles, the Present and the Past, and a phrasal participle called the Perfect.

A Present Participle is a participle that expresses an incomplete or continuing action; as *driving*, *helping*.

A Past Participle is a participle that expresses completed action; as, *driven*, *helped*.

A Perfect Participle is a participle that represents an action as completed at some past time; as, *Having rested*, we continued our journey.

374. When a participle has a complement or modifier, or both, the whole group of related words is called a **participial phrase.**

375. DEFINITION. — **A Participial Phrase is a phrase introduced by a participle**; *Hearing a noise*, I turned around.

376. The present participle always ends in *-ing*; as, *bending*, *finding*, *speaking*.

377. The past participle of most verbs ends in *ed*; as, *helped*, *attended*, *moved*. The past participle of other verbs is formed in various ways; as, *broken*, *fought*, *laid*.

EXERCISE 180

Form the present and past participles of the following verbs: —

EXAMPLE: Write, writing, written. (The past participle is the form used after *I have;* as, I have *forgotten.*)

Forget, begin, study, freeze, lift, give, think, know, see, tell, speak, buy, do, drive, find, ring, swing, crown, spring, praise, steal, take.

EXERCISE 181

In the following sentences tell whether each italicized word is a present or a past participle, and also what word it modifies: —

1. I saw her *singing* at her work.
2. Hannah's at the window *binding* shoes.
3. Truth *crushed* to earth shall rise again.
4. *Circling* above us, the black rooks fly.
5. It is dangerous to live in a house *built* of glass.
6. The deer saw the boat *headed* for her.
7. 'Tis the last rose of summer, *left* blooming alone.
8. The Indian wigwam was a tent *held* up by poles.
9. Often I sat in my room *reading* the greater part of the night.
10. Goliath had a man *going* before him *carrying* a shield.
11. The children *coming* home from school look in at the open door.
12. We climbed around the convent on a narrow, rocky path *overhanging* the lake.

EXERCISE 182

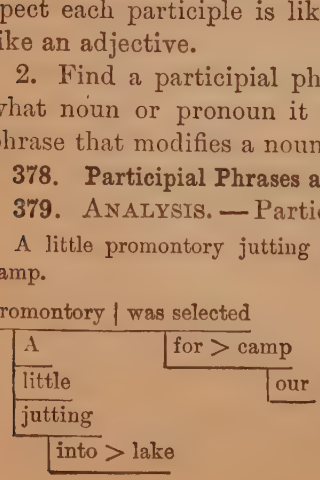
1. Read over the above sentences and tell in what respect each participle is like a verb, and in what respect like an adjective.

2. Find a participial phrase in each sentence and tell what noun or pronoun it modifies. What do we call a phrase that modifies a noun or pronoun?

378. Participial Phrases are adjective phrases.

379. ANALYSIS. — Participles.

A little promontory jutting into the lake was selected for our camp.



A participle, or participial phrase, being an adjective modifier, is treated like an adjective, and joined to the word it modifies.

CHAPTER CII

GERUNDS OR VERBAL NOUNS

380. We have learned that infinitives and participles are verb-forms that take the same complements and modifiers as verbs, and yet cannot be used as predicates. There is another verb-form called the **gerund**, or verbal noun, that expresses action like a verb, and yet cannot make an assertion.

1. Careless *writing* causes much trouble.
2. *Writing* carelessly causes much trouble.
3. The miser spends his time in *hoarding* money.

In 1, *writing* is used like a verb, since it expresses action, and yet it resembles a noun in being modified by the adjective *careless*, and in being the subject of the sentence.

In 2, *writing* looks even more like a verb than in sentence 1, since it is modified by an adverb instead of an adjective, but it resembles a noun in being the subject of the sentence.

In 3, *hoarding* takes an object like a verb, but is governed by a preposition like a noun.

381. Verb-forms ending in *-ing* and partaking of the nature of a verb and a noun are called **gerunds.**

382. DEFINITION. — **A Gerund is a verbal (ending in *-ing*) that is used partly like a verb and partly like a noun.**

The gerund must be carefully distinguished from the participle in *-ing*.

1. *Walking* up to the stranger, I spoke to him.
2. *Walking* on the grass is forbidden.

In 1, *walking* is a participle used to modify the pronoun *I*. In 2, *walking* is a gerund used as the subject of the sentence.

Phrasal gerunds are formed with the help of auxiliary participles; as, We were fatigued on account of *having walked* so far.

383. The *participle* in *-ing* is never used as a noun, but is always a modifier.

The *gerund* is never a modifier, but is always used like a noun.

When the form in *-ing* takes an *article* (*a*, *an*, *the*), or is used in the *plural*, it is neither a gerund nor a participle, but a pure noun; as, a *rustling* of silk, the *ringing* of bells, a pleasant *meeting*, a good *showing*, wise *sayings*, generous *offerings*.

EXERCISE 183

In the following sentences tell whether each form in *-ing* is a gerund, a present participle, or a noun, and give a reason for each answer: —

1. Sawing wood is hard work. 2. After studying for an hour, James went to bed. 3. Do not give up without trying. 4. Avalanches sometimes slide down a mountain, burying whole villages. 5. Amassing wealth oft ruins health. 6. There was a small opening in the roof. 7. Advancing up the hill, the little army met a deadly fire. 8. Jumping rope is good exercise. 9. Jumping over the fence, the thief escaped. 10. We were delighted with his singing. 11. He is accustomed to speaking in public. 12. Without asking their permission, the girl approached the fire. 13. A miser grows rich by seeming poor. — Shenstone. 14. The ocean is a wilderness reaching round the globe. — Thoreau. 15. I spent several hours in rambling about Westminster Abbey. — Irving. 16. There was an end to grinding, crushing, and sawing for that day. — Dodge. 17. Next to being a great poet is the power of understanding one. — Longfellow. 18. The sighing of the wind was like the whistling of bullets. — Bancroft. 19. Hutter and Hurry landed, leaving their companions in charge of the boat. — Cooper. 20. Doing justice to one class cannot inflict injury on another class. — Bright.

CHAPTER CIII

INFINITIVES AND GERUNDS

384. The gerund resembles the infinitive in its use, and is sometimes called the infinitive in *-ing*. In many sentences either of these forms may be used without any special difference in meaning; as, —

Asking questions is easier than *answering* them. (Gerunds.)
To ask questions is easier than *to answer* them. (Infinitives.)

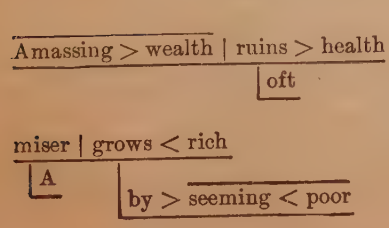
EXERCISE 184

Change the infinitives in the following sentences to gerunds, and the gerunds to infinitives: —

1. Giving is better than receiving. 2. Walking several miles a day would do you good. 3. Knowing some trade is a great convenience. 4. I shall continue to study arithmetic. 5. Early rising is good for the health. 6. To begin right is the important thing. 7. Do you like writing compositions? 8. His greatest delight is to play ball. 9. To read aloud is an excellent practice. 10. The principal difficulty was to lift me into the carriage. 11. I like camping out in the woods. 12. To wear out is better than to rust out.

385. ANALYSIS. — Gerunds.

1. Amassing wealth oft ruins health.
2. A miser grows rich by seeming poor.



In sentence 1, the subject is the phrase *Amassing wealth* used as a noun. The principal word of the phrase is the gerund *Amassing*. In sentence 2, the gerund *seeming* is part of the phrase *by seeming poor*, which modifies *grows*.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What are verbals? 2. How do the following two expressions differ? *Climbing to the roof. He climbed to the roof.* 3. What is an infinitive? Give an example. 4. In the sentence, *To see her is to love her*, in what respect is each infinitive like a verb? In what respect is it like a noun? 5. Use an infinitive as a modifier of a noun, of a verb, of an adjective. 6. Use infinitives to modify the following words: *waited, longed, ready, afraid, surprised, delighted.* 7. What does infinitive mean? 8. What is an infinitive phrase? 9. When is an infinitive phrase a noun phrase? 10. What is a participle? 11. In the sentence, *I saw George playing ball*, in what respect is *playing* like a verb? In what respect is it like an adjective? 12. What is a participial phrase? 13. What is a gerund? 14. How does a gerund differ from a participle? 15. In the sentence, *Eating rapidly is injurious*, show that *eating* is used partly as a verb and partly as a noun. 16. In the sentence, *Taking a chair, he made himself at home*, is *taking* a gerund or a participle? Why?

A SUMMARY OF PHRASES

386. In regard to **form**, phrases are prepositional, infinitive, participial, or gerundial.

1. A **prepositional** phrase is a phrase introduced by a preposition; as, The dog jumped *over the fence*.

2. An **infinitive** phrase is a phrase introduced by an infinitive; as, I have begun *to paint my house*.

3. A **participial** phrase is a phrase introduced by a participle; as, *Hearing a noise*, I turned around.

4. A **gerundial** phrase is a phrase introduced by a gerund; as, *Playing ball* is good sport.

387. In regard to **use**, phrases are divided into noun phrases, adjective phrases, and adverbial phrases.

1. A **noun** phrase is a phrase that does the work of a noun; as, *To describe the scene* is impossible.

2. An **adjective** phrase is a phrase that does the work of an adjective; as, I pity a child *without a home*.

3. An **adverbial** phrase is a phrase that does the work of an adverb; as, The brook flows *through peaceful meadows*. The primrose was ready *to bloom*. His brow is wet *with honest sweat*.

CHAPTER CIV

VARIETY OF EXPRESSION

388. A good writer is able to express a thought in more than one way. From time to time lessons will be given to show how the form of expression may be varied.

EXERCISE 185

In the following sentences expand each participle or participial phrase into a clause: —

EXAMPLE: A picture *showing* the mountains and valleys is called a relief map = A picture that shows, etc.

1. The narrow neck of land *connecting* two larger bodies is an isthmus.
2. A current of water *moving* with great swiftness is a rapid.
3. Iron, lead, and other metals *dug* out of the rocks are called ores.
4. Rivers supply water where *needed*.
5. Streams of water, *starting* as tiny brooks, grow into rivers.
6. Sometimes the most valuable products of a state are substances *found* beneath the surface.
7. South Africa, originally *settled* by the Dutch, now belongs to Great Britain.
8. One of the chief products of the Philippine Islands is hemp, *used* in making ropes.
9. In the Pacific Ocean are the Hawaiian Islands, now *forming* a part of the United States.
10. That gentleman *walking* so rapidly is the mayor.

What kind of sentence is each of the above before it is expanded? What kind is each after it is expanded?

EXERCISE 186

389. In the following sentences contract each dependent clause into a participle or participial phrase:—

EXAMPLE: As he was ill, he did not leave the house.
Being ill, he did not leave the house.

1. Hudson sailed from Amsterdam in a ship which was called the *Half Moon*.
2. When Hudson went back to Holland, he told his people about the great river.
3. As we saw indications of a shower, we took refuge in a neighboring farmhouse.
4. Since they found the place fertile and well watered, they determined to settle there.
5. As the ancients knew but little about the Atlantic Ocean, they called it the "Sea of Darkness."
6. The Suez Canal, which connects the Red and Mediterranean seas, was completed in 1869.
7. Quito has a large cathedral that occupies one side of the public square.
8. Montevideo is situated on a peninsula that extends into its harbor.
9. As we came nearer, we could plainly discern the houses and cattle on the shore.
10. The Newfoundland Banks form a submarine plateau that stretches three hundred miles into the Atlantic Ocean.

What kind of sentence is each of the above before it is contracted? What kind of sentence is each after it is contracted?

CHAPTER CV

THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF VERBS

390. There are three parts of the verb from which all the other parts may be formed. If we know the present tense, the past tense, and the past participle of a verb, we can easily determine the other parts. For this reason,

the forms just mentioned are called the **Principal Parts** of the verb. Learning to give these forms is the next important step to be taken in the study of verbs.

391. DEFINITION. — **The Principal Parts of a verb are the forms from which the other parts are made; namely, the present tense, the past tense, and the past participle.**

EXERCISE 187

Write the principal parts of the following verbs as indicated below: —

Shout, study, sing, recite, run, fail, see, begin, drive, know, eat, leave, work, freeze, speak, walk, exercise, march, read, arise.

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
I ——.	I —— yesterday.	I have ——.

EXERCISE 188

Give orally the past tense and past participle of the following verbs: —

catch	forget	call	grow	play
shake	tear	walk	throw	lose
speak	talk	hide	strike	bring
run	drive	fall	take	weave

EXERCISE 189

Read the following sentences, changing the verb to the past tense: —

1. The deer visits the spring every day.
2. The knights ride merrily to the contest.
3. The shouts of the soldiers die away.
4. The dog waits patiently for his dinner.
5. The boys in the choir sing in the chorus.
6. William drives to the city every day.
7. The train speeds on its way.
8. The birds fly from tree to tree.

CHAPTER CVI

FORMING THE PAST TENSE

To the Teacher.—The practice of classifying verbs as regular or irregular has the merit of simplicity, and serves all the requirements of elementary instruction. But the classification as *weak* or *strong* is more fundamental, and pupils who continue the study of English beyond the common schools should be able to recognize the main difference between these two classes. Both methods of classification are sufficiently explained in the following pages.

392. Verbs may be divided into **two classes** according to the manner in which they form the **past tense** from the present.

Regular and Irregular Verbs

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
We *work.*	We *worked* yesterday.	We have *worked.*
We *rest.*	We *rested* yesterday.	We have *rested.*
We *move.*	We *moved* yesterday.	We have *moved.*
We *telephone.*	We *telephoned* yesterday.	We have *telephoned.*

1. Notice that the past tense and the past participle of the verbs *work* and *rest* are formed by adding *ed* to the present.

2. Notice that the past tense and past participle of the verbs *move* and *telephone* (which end in *e*) are formed by adding *d* to the present.

3. Notice that the past tense and past participles are alike for each of the four verbs.

Most verbs form their past tense and past participle by adding *ed* or *d* to the present without any other change. Such verbs are often called **regular**, and all other verbs are called **irregular.**

393. Notice that in forming its past tense each of the following verbs **adds** one or more letters — *sail* adds *ed*; *pay* adds *d*; and *sleep* adds *t*.

WEAK AND STRONG VERBS

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
We *sail*.	We *sailed* yesterday.	We have *sailed*.
We *pay*.	We *paid* yesterday.	We have *paid*.
We *sleep*.	We *slept* yesterday.	We have *slept*.

Verbs that form the past tense by adding *ed*, *d*, or *t* to the present, are called **weak** verbs; as *talk*, *talked*; *creep*, *crept*; *dwell*, *dwelt*; *teach*, *taught*. The past tense and past participle of weak verbs are alike.

394. Notice that the past tense of each of the following verbs is formed, not by **adding** an ending, but by **changing** the root vowel of the present: *write* changes *i* to *o*; *come* changes *o* to *a*; *swing* changes *i* to *u*.

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
We *write*.	We *wrote* yesterday.	We have *written*.
We *come*.	We *came* yesterday.	We have *come*.
We *swing*.	We *swung* yesterday.	We have *swung*.

Verbs that form their past tense by changing the vowel of the present, without adding an ending, are called **strong** verbs; as *break*, *broke*; *begin*, *began*; *freeze*, *froze*; *see*, *saw*.

EXERCISE 190

Tell whether each of the following verbs is weak or strong: —

Begin, reach, bind, receive, break, drive, find, seem, grow, ride, take, arrive, feel, keep, run, see, say, weep, speak, hear, write, come, command, hang, swear.

CHAPTER CVII

IRREGULAR WEAK VERBS

395. Weak verbs may be conveniently divided into two classes. If the past tense ends in *ed*, the verb is a **regular weak verb.** If the past tense does not end in *ed*, the verb is an **irregular weak verb.**

In Old English *ede* was regularly added to the present of weak verbs to form the past tense. The past tense of *look*, for example, was written and pronounced *lookede* (three syllables). First, the final *e* was dropped and the word was pronounced *looked* (two syllables). In time the connecting vowel *e* was disregarded, and *looked* came to have the sound of *lookt* (one syllable). At the present time this *ed* does not form a syllable unless the present tense ends in *d* or *t*. We pronounce *dreaded* as two syllables, but *looked* is pronounced as if spelled *lookt*. Thus some weak past tenses end in *t* because they are now spelled as they are pronounced.[1]

396. It will not be difficult to tell whether any verb is weak or strong, if the following four cautions are kept in mind: —

1. A verb that changes its vowel to form the past tense is a weak verb if it also has the added *d* or *t*; as, *sell*, *tell*, *beseech*, *bring*, *buy*, *catch*, *seek*, *teach*, *think*.

2. The following verbs ending in *d*, which change the *d* to *t* in the past tense, are weak verbs: *bend*, *build*, *lend*, *rend*, *send*, *spend*.

3. The following verbs ending in *d* or *t*, which shorten the vowel sound in the past but add no ending, are weak verbs: *bleed*, *breed*, *feed*, *lead*, *speed*, *read*, *meet*.

4. The following verbs, which have the same form for the past and present, are weak verbs: *bet*, *bid* (to offer),

[1] See Lounsbury's "English Language," p. 359.

cast, *cost*, *cut*, *hit*, *hurt*, *let*, *put*, *rid*, *set*, *shed*, *shut*, *split*, *spread*, *thrust*.

397. The verbs described in 3 and 4 originally had an ending, *de* or *te*, in the past tense; as, *fed-de*, *met-te*, *cut-te*. These endings have been lost.

EXERCISE 191

1. Tell whether each verb is weak or strong: —

Bless, bend, feel, seek, swear, strive, steal, feed, cut, bring, spell, kneel, run, hurt, teach, send, meet, rise, hold, do.

2. Find twenty weak verbs and twenty strong verbs in the list of irregular verbs given in the following pages.

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS

398. In order to make the following list of irregular verbs of greater practical use to young students some archaic or rare forms have been omitted. R indicates that the regular form in *ed* is in use. R* indicates that the form in *ed* is preferred.

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PAR.
abide	abode	abode
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke R	awaked
be	was	been
bear	bore	borne, born
beat	beat	beaten
begin	began	begun
bend	bent	bent
bereave	bereft R	bereft R
beseech	besought	besought
bet	bet	bet
bid (*order*)	bade	bidden
bid (*offer*)	bid	bid
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
bless	blest R*	blest R*
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burn	burnt R	burnt R
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
chide	chid	chidden
choose	chose	chosen

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PAR.
cleave	cleft	cleft R
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
crow	crew R*	crowed
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamt R	dreamt R
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
dwell	dwelt	dwelt
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgot / forgotten
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got, gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung R	hung R
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
heave	hove R	hove R*

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PAR.
hew	hewed	hewn R
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt R	knelt R
knit	knit R.	knit R
know	knew	known
lade	laded	laden R
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
learn	learnt R*	learnt R*
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie (*recline*)	lay	lain
light	lit R*	lit R*
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
mow	mowed	mown R.
pay	paid	paid
pen	pent R*	pent R*
put	put	put
quit	quit R	quit R
read	read	read
rend	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive	rived	riven R*
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen

Present	Past	Past Par.
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shape	shaped	shapen R*
shave	shaved	shaven R*
shear	shore R*	shorn R*
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown
shred	shred R	shred R
shrink	shrank	shrunk
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid, slidden
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
slit	slit	slit
smell	smelt R*	smelt R*
smite	smote	smitten
sow	sowed	sown R
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped R	sped R
spell	spelt R*	spelt R*
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt R	spilt R
spin	spun	spun
spit	spit	spit
split	split	split
spoil	spoilt R	spoilt R.
spread	spread	spread

Present	Past	Past Par
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
stave	stove R	stove R
stay	staid R	staid R
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
strew	strewed	strewn
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck / stricken
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
sweat	sweat R	sweat R
sweep	swept	swept
swell	swelled	swollen R*
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	throve R	thriven R
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trodden
wake	woke R*	woke R*
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
wed	wedded	wed R*
weep	wept	wept
wet	wet	wet
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

CHAPTER CVIII

INFLECTION OF THE PRESENT, PAST, AND FUTURE TENSES

399. We have already seen that verbs undergo changes in form to show the **time** of the action expressed by the verb (§ 350). We have also learned that the form of the verb sometimes depends on the **person** and **number** of the subject (§ 354).

400. We shall now study some of these changes as they appear in the various tenses of the Indicative Mode.

Present Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I give.	1. We give.
2. You give (thou givest).	2. You give.
3. He gives.	3. They give.

Tell the person and number of each subject. Which subject requires the ending *s*?

The only inflection in the present tense still in common use (except in the verb *be*) is the ending *s* (or *es*) in the third person singular; as, *gives*, *goes*, *teaches*.

The old second person singular of the present has a special inflection in *-est* (or *-st*); as, Thou give*st*.

This form is not now used in ordinary speech, but occurs frequently in prayers, in Bible language, and in poetry. Instead of the singular pronoun *thou*, the plural pronoun *you* (with a plural verb) is now used, even in addressing one person; as, My friend, *you are* mistaken.

TO THE TEACHER. — If thought best, the forms that belong to the solemn or poetic style may be omitted for the present.

EXERCISE 192

Give orally the entire present tense of the following verbs : —

hear	miss	follow	give	write
move	know	freeze	go	begin
recite	use	ring	run	fly
keep	command	drive	weep	teach

401. The past tense has no personal endings in common use.

Past Tense

Singular	Plural
1. I gave.	1. We gave.
2. You gave (thou gavest).	2. You gave.
3. He gave.	3. They gave.

EXERCISE 193

Give orally the entire past tense of the following verbs : —

collect	begin	reach	bring	flee
add	sweep	sleep	arrange	grow
leave	see	draw	wash	tramp

402. The present and past tenses of the active voice are the only tenses that are really inflected ; that is, they are the only tenses that consist of one word and express time by simply changing the form of that word ; as, *I write, I wrote ; I play, I played.* In all **other** tenses of the active voice, and in **all** the tenses of the passive voice, time is expressed by means of verb-phrases ; as, I *have seen* him.

403. Future time is expressed by means of verb-phrases consisting of *shall* or *will* and the infinitive (without the sign *to*); as, I *shall start* to-morrow ; James *will go* with me.

The form of the infinitive (without *to*) is the same as that of the present indicative.

404. The regular future has *shall* in the first person, and *will* in the second and third persons.

Future Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I shall give.	1. We shall give.
2. You will give (thou wilt give).	2. You will give.
3. He will give.	3. They will give.

EXERCISE 194

Give orally the entire future tense of the following verbs : —

arise	begin	win	come	stay
ride	sing	eat	send	teach
strive	swim	see	read	tell
choose	cling	stand	sleep	sew

EXERCISE 195

Give orally the first person singular of the present, past, and future of the verbs in Exercise 192.

EXAMPLE: Present, *I hear ;* Past, *I heard ;* Future, *I shall hear.*

The uses of *shall* and *will* are more fully explained in later lessons (§§ 435–443).

CHAPTER CIX

COMPLETE TENSES

405. The three tenses which we have already studied are called simple or primary tenses, because each refers an action to one of the three simple divisions of time, the present, the past, or the future.

406. But an action may be represented as **completed** before some point of time in the present, past, or future.

1. They *have left* for Chicago.
2. They *had left* before I arrived.
3. They *will have left* before I shall arrive.

These three tenses are called (1) the **present perfect**, (2) the **past perfect**, and (3) the **future perfect**.

407. These tenses consist of **verb-phrases** made by prefixing the proper form of the auxiliary *have* to the past participle of the given verb.

408. The present perfect tense represents the action as **completed at the present time.** It is formed by prefixing *have* (*has*) to the past participle.

The past perfect tense represents the action as **completed at some past time.** It is formed by prefixing *had* to the past participle.

The future perfect tense represents that the action will be **completed before some future time.** It is formed by prefixing *shall have*, or *will have*, to the past participle.

EXERCISE 196

Fill these blanks with the proper form of the verbs *walk*, *recite*, *go*, *run*, *sing*, *sleep*, *speak*, *teach*, *write*, *practice*.

He —— every day = Present.
He —— yesterday = Past.
He —— to-morrow = Future.
He —— already to-day = Present Perfect.
He —— before I called = Past Perfect.
He —— before I shall see him = Future Perfect.

EXERCISE 197

1. Tell the tense of the verbs in the following sentences: —

1. I hope the poor woman will soon recover.
2. Up yonder hill the village murmur rose.
3. I have waited all my life for this hour.

4. Health and plenty cheered the laboring swain.
5. No more thy glassy brooks reflect the day.
6. The sun went down, and the stars came out.
7. How often have I blessed the coming day!
8. Then came a change, as all things human change.
9. Many years before, the merchant had served as an errand boy.
10. I have come to remind you of your promise.
11. Surely I shall be wiser in a year.
12. We had noticed all along that he acted strangely.
13. Before I shall see her, the affair will have been settled.

2. Find the verb-phrases in the above exercise, and name the auxiliary in each.

The future perfect tense is not much used, its place being taken by the simple future.

EXERCISE 198

1. Give the first person singular of the following verbs in all the tenses of the indicative: —

EXAMPLE: Present, I give; Past, I gave; Future, I shall give; Present Perfect, I have given; Past Perfect, I had given; Future Perfect, I shall have given.

Come, drive, command, forget, help, hold, buy, meet, talk, think, keep, mend, send.

2. In the same manner inflect the above verbs (*a*) in the first person plural, (*b*) in the third person plural, (*c*) in the third person singular, using the noun *George* as the subject.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by the principal parts of a verb? Of what use are they? 2. Define regular verb; irregular verb; weak verb; strong verb. 3. Inflect *give* in the present tense; in the past tense. 4. How is the future tense formed? 5. Name the complete tenses. Why are they so called? 6. Inflect *write* in the third person singular of the tenses of the indicative.

CHAPTER CX

CONJUGATION OF THE ACTIVE VOICE

409. Conjugation is the orderly arrangement of all the forms of a verb.

410. Auxiliary verbs are those that help to form the verb-phrases used in the conjugation of other verbs.

It is an advantage for pupils to see the complete conjugation of a verb. Such a general view as is afforded in the following pages will help to systematize the knowledge already acquired, and fix it in the mind in an orderly way.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *LOVE*

Active Voice

Principal Parts

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
Love.	Loved.	Loved.

Indicative Mode

Present Tense

Singular	Plural
1. I love.	1. We love.
2. You love (thou lovest).	2. You love.
3. He loves.	3. They love.

Past Tense

1. I loved.	1. We loved.
2. You loved (thou lovedst).	2. You loved.
3. He loved.	3. They loved.

Future Tense

1. I shall love.	1. We shall love.
2. You will love (thou wilt love).	2. You will love.
3. He will love.	3. They will love.

Present Perfect Tense

1. I have loved.	1. We have loved.
2. You have loved (thou hast loved).	2. You have loved.
3. He has loved.	3. They have loved.

Past Perfect Tense

Singular	Plural
1. I had loved.	1. We had loved.
2. You had loved (thou hadst loved).	2. You had loved.
3. He had loved.	3. They had loved.

Future Perfect Tense

1. I shall have loved.	1. We shall have loved.
2. You will have loved (thou wilt have loved).	2. You will have loved.
3. He will have loved.	3. They will have loved.

Subjunctive Mode

(Often preceded by *if*, *though*, or *lest*.)

Present Tense

1. I love.	1. We love.
2. You love (thou love).	2. You love.
3. He love.	3. They love.

Past Tense

1. I loved.	1. We loved.
2. You loved (thou loved).	2. You loved.
3. He loved.	3. They loved.

Present Perfect Tense

(Same form as the Indicative.)

Past Perfect Tense

(Same form as the Indicative.)

Imperative Mode

Present Tense

2. Love you (*or* thou).	2. Love you (*or* ye).

Infinitives

Present, To love. *Perfect*, To have loved.

PARTICIPLES

Present, Loving. *Past Passive*, Loved. *Perfect*, Having loved.

GERUNDS

Present, Loving. *Perfect*, Having loved.

EXERCISE 199

1. Conjugate the following verbs in the third person singular of the indicative:—

Plant, see, give, look, hear.

2. Conjugate the following verbs in the first person singular of the subjunctive:—

Take, deny, stand, repent, find.

3. Give the infinitives of the following verbs:—

Walk, search, bring, weep, regret.

4. Give the participles of the following verbs:—

Toil, swing, catch, go, spread.

EXERCISE 200

Tell the tense, person, number, and subject of each verb in the following:—

George Washington left school when he was sixteen years of age. At that time a large part of Virginia belonged to Lord Fairfax, who did not know how much land he owned, because he had never surveyed it. Although a mere boy, George had learned surveying. One day the great Fairfax sent for the young surveyor and said to him: "I want you to survey my land beyond the mountains. You will find life in the wilderness full of hardships. Indians and wild beasts will molest you. But I will pay you well for your work, and you will not lack food, for the woods will be full of wild turkeys and other game."

The boy accepted the offer, crossed the mountains, and lived a rough life for three years. It was in this way that he learned to be a soldier.

CHAPTER CXI

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *BE*

Principal Parts

PRESENT TENSE	PAST TENSE	PAST PARTICIPLE
Am (*or* be).	Was.	Been.

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I am.	1. We are.
2. You are (thou art).	2. You are.
3. He is.	3. They are.

Past Tense

1. I was.	1. We were.
2. You were (thou wast).	2. You were.
3. He was.	3. They were.

Future Tense

1. I shall be.	1. We shall be.
2. You will be (thou wilt be).	2. You will be.
3. He will be.	3. They will be.

Present Perfect Tense

1. I have been.	1. We have been.
2. You have been (thou hast been).	2. You have been.
3. He has been.	3. They have been.

Past Perfect Tense

1. I had been.	1. We had been.
2. You had been (thou hadst been).	2. You had been.
3. He had been.	3. They had been.

Future Perfect Tense

1. I shall have been.	1. We shall have been.
2. You will have been (thou wilt have been).	2. You will have been.
3. He will have been.	3. They will have been

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

(Often preceded by *if*, *though*, or *lest*.)

Present Tense

1. I be.	1. We be.
2. You be (thou be).	2. You be.
3. He be.	3. They be.

Past Tense

1. I were.	1. We were.
2. You were (thou wert).	2. You were.
3. He were.	3. They were.

Present Perfect Tense

(Same form as the Indicative.)

Past Perfect Tense

(Same form as the Indicative.)

IMPERATIVE MODE

1. Be you (*or* thou). 2. Be you (*or* ye).

INFINITIVES

Present, To be. *Perfect*, To have been.

PARTICIPLES

Present, Being. *Past*, Been. *Perfect*, Having been.

GERUNDS

Present, Being. *Perfect*, Having been.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How do verbs express different meanings? 2. Define verb-phrases. 3. Define inflection. 4. What is meant by voice? 5. Define the active voice. 6. The passive voice. 7. What is the meaning of the word *passive*? 8. What is meant by the agent? 9. Why have intransitive verbs no passive forms?

CHAPTER CXII

PASSIVE VERB-PHRASES

411. In English verbs the passive voice is never expressed by a single word, but is always a verb-phrase.

412. **Passive verb-phrases** are made by prefixing the proper form of the auxiliary *be* to the past participle of a transitive verb.

413. The conjugation of the transitive verb *see* in the passive voice is indicated below.

INDICATIVE MODE

Present, I am seen.	*Present Perfect,* I have been seen.
Past, I was seen.	*Past Perfect,* I had been seen.
Future, I shall be seen.	*Future Perfect,* I shall have been seen.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

Present, I be seen.	*Present Perfect,* (Like Indicative.)
Past, I were seen.	*Past Perfect,* (Like Indicative.)

IMPERATIVE MODE

Be you (*or* thou) seen.

INFINITIVES

Present, To be seen. *Perfect,* To have been seen.

PARTICIPLES

Present, Being seen. *Past,* Seen. *Perfect,* Having been seen.

GERUNDS

Present, Being seen. *Perfect,* Having been seen.

EXERCISE 201

Conjugate the following verbs in the passive voice by placing the past participle of each verb after all the forms of the auxiliary *be* as given on pages 224–225: —

Help, love, carry, teach, tell, forget, choose.

EXERCISE 202

Find the passive verb-phrases in the following selections. Tell the subject of each verb or verb-phrase.

1. Extensive areas in the Southern States are covered with timber. Instead of floating the logs down to tide water by means of spring freshets, sawmills are located in the midst of the forests; if possible, on the river banks. To them the logs are brought, and sawed into lumber. For many years the Georgia pine has been used for flooring in the North. It has been shipped from Charleston, Savannah, and other Southern cities. The oak is found among the mountains, and large quantities of hard lumber are shipped from Memphis. Although much pine, oak, and other lumber is sent North, a great deal is manufactured into doors, blinds, and furniture in the South. These forests are of value in two other ways. From them are obtained turpentine and tannic acid, the liquid in which hides are soaked to make leather. Turpentine is made from the sap of the pine tree. The bark is cut into and the sap allowed to ooze out. This is then reduced to raw turpentine.

2. The Empire is governed under laws which were made for another and a very different generation of men. Unless these things are changed, I cannot answer for the consequences, but I shall be surprised if things are not done within our lifetime which will be deplored for all time to come.

3. For a cap and bells our lives we pay,
Bubbles we buy with a whole soul's tasking:
'Tis heaven alone that is given away,
'Tis God alone may be had for the asking. — LOWELL.

CHAPTER CXIII

PROGRESSIVE VERB-PHRASES

414. Study the following pairs of sentences, noticing how they differ in form and meaning.

1. Hawks catch chickens.
2. Hawks are catching chickens.
3. The sun rises in the east.
4. The sun is rising in the east.

Sentence 1 does not necessarily mean that the hawks are **now** engaged in catching chickens, but that they are in the **habit** of catching them. The time is **indefinite.**

Sentence 2 means that the hawks are actually catching chickens at the present time. The time is **definite.**

In the same way sentence 3 does not mean that the sun is now rising, but that when it does rise it rises in the east (indefinite time). Sentence 4 leaves no doubt that the sun is now rising (definite time).

Verb-phrases like *are catching* and *is rising* in sentences 2 and 4 represent the action as **continuing** or **progressing,** and are therefore called **progressive** forms.

415. Progressive verb-phrases are made by prefixing the proper form of the auxiliary *be* to the present participle of a verb. *Are catching*, in sentence 2 above, is formed by prefixing the auxiliary *are* to the present participle of the verb *catch.*

EXERCISE 203

Make the progressive forms of the following verbs by placing the present participle of each verb after the forms of the auxiliary *be* as given on pages 224–225: —

Talk, begin, come, float, run.

The simple tenses are sometimes called the **indefinite tenses** to distinguish them from the **progressive forms,** which denote definite time.

EXERCISE 204

Change these sentences so that they will express progressive action, and notice the change in meaning: —

1. The farmer plants trees. 2. Arthur speaks German. 3. The cat catches birds. 4. Oscar drives the cows home. 5. The crows steal corn. 6. Stars shine. 7. The sun shines in at that window.

EXERCISE 205

Select the progressive forms, tell the tense of each, and change each to the simple (indefinite) form.

1. The sun was shining on the sea.
2. The tide was turning very fast now.
3. The young lambs are bleating in the meadow.
4. The dawn was breaking over the white roofs.
5. The hens had been mysteriously disappearing for over a month.
6. He woke as if angels had been watching at his bed all night.

416. Do not mistake a **progressive** form for a **passive** form. A progressive verb-phrase always has the **present** participle; a passive verb-phrase, the **past** participle.

The boy *was driving* the cows. (Progressive.)
The cows *were driven* by the boy. (Passive.)

417. In the **passive**, the progressive forms are made by inserting *being* between the proper form of *be* and the past participle, as, —

Our house is being repainted.

418. Occasionally the **gerund** of a verb, preceded by some form of *be*, is used for the progressive passive, as, —

Preparations are now making.

The above passive use of the gerund arises from the omission of *a* (*on*), an old preposition, which is still seen in such expressions as *a-fishing*, *a-milking*, etc.

CHAPTER CXIV

EMPHATIC AND INTERROGATIVE FORMS

419. A verb is conjugated in the so-called **emphatic** form by joining the infinitive (without *to*) to the forms of the verb *do* in the present and past indicative.

INDICATIVE MODE

Present Tense

SINGULAR	PLURAL
1. I do ——.	1. We do ——.
2. You do —— (thou dost).	2. You do ——.
3. He does ——.	3. They do ——.

Past Tense

1. I did ——.	1. We did ——.
2. You did —— (thou didst).	2. You did ——.
3. He did ——.	3. They did ——.

Do is also used to form an emphatic imperative; as, *Do go* away.

420. These forms are not always emphatic, but are sometimes used as equivalents of the ordinary present and past, especially in poetry.

> Banners yellow, glorious, golden,
> On its roof *did float* and flow. — POE.

421. *Do* and *did* are often used as **substitutes** for a verb in a preceding clause; as, I work harder than you *do* (= work).

422. A verb may be conjugated **interrogatively** by placing the subject after the first auxiliary.

Did he come? Have you seen him? Has he been seen?

NOTE. — *Don't* should not be used as a contraction of *does not*.

423. A verb may be conjugated **negatively** by placing the adverb *not* after the first auxiliary; as, He did *not* come. They had *not* been seen.

424. In poetry and formal language the simple forms of the present and past tenses are still occasionally used negatively and interrogatively; as, *I know not. Touch me not. Doubt you my word?* In ordinary speech we say, *I do not know. Do not touch me. Do you doubt my word?*

With infinitives and participles the *not* comes first; as, I am sorry *not* to have seen him. *Not* seeing him, we went away.

425. A verb may be conjugated interrogatively *and* negatively by placing the subject and the *not* after the first auxiliary.

Did I not tell you? Has he not been seen?

EXERCISE 206

Name the verb-phrases of which *do*, *does*, or *did* forms a part. Tell whether each verb-phrase expresses emphasis or not. Notice any forms of *do* that are used in questions, in denials, or as substitutes for other verbs.

1. It does look very hot, to be sure. — JANE AUSTEN.
2. It is astonishing to observe both what people do see and what they do not see. — BEECHER.
3. No country seems to owe more to its women than America does. — BRYCE.
4. "Oh, papa," said little Jack, "do tell us a story." — AIKEN.
5. Many a morning on the moorlands did we hear the copses ring. — TENNYSON.
6. I did love him, but scorn him now. — LATHAM.
7. "You don't say so, Mr. Johnson." "But I do say so." — SCOTT.
8. Captain Smith did not have his big gun with him.
9. Does the boy look like his father?

EXERCISE 207

1. Give the emphatic forms of the following verbs: —

Go, know, read, speak, sing.

2. Conjugate the following verbs interrogatively in the third person singular of the indicative mode: —

Call, help, forget, push, find.

3. Conjugate the following verbs negatively in the third person plural of the indicative: —

Hear, know, study, notice, tell.

4. Conjugate the following verbs interrogatively and negatively in the second person plural of the indicative: —

See, remember, think, try, hide.

EXERCISE 208

Tell the voice, tense, person, and number of the verbs in the following exercise. Also mention any progressive, emphatic, interrogative, or negative forms.

1. I have been working. 2. Were they eating dinner? 3. They will be caught. 4. Yes, we did have a good time. 5. I was not listening. 6. The child has been found. 7. They were whispering. 8. Do hurry. 9. We had not been informed. 10. He did not push. 11. He did push. 12. Has the horse been watered? 13. O that he were living! 14. Do you drink tea? 15. Has he been bitten? 16. The wind had been blowing. 17. John does try. 18. He was happy to have been elected. 19. I found him to be doing well. 20. He will have been told before to-morrow. 21. You will not be forgotten. 22. The horses had been driven all day. 23. Have you not been paid? 24. He was glad to be improving. 25. Do you mend shoes?

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Define conjugation; auxiliary verb. 2. How are passive verb-phrases made? Give an example. 3. How are progressive verb-

phrases made? Give an example. 4. How do these sentences differ in meaning? *John walks to school. John is walking to school.* 5. How are emphatic verb-phrases made? Give an example. 6. How are verbs conjugated interrogatively? Negatively? Give examples.

CHAPTER CXV

SPECIAL RULES FOR AGREEMENT OF VERBS

426. A verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

In the application of this rule it is the **thought** that decides whether a subject is singular or plural. The **sense** as well as the **form** of the subject must be considered.

427. Two or more singular subjects joined by *and* usually take a plural verb; as, Sumter and Marion *were* revolutionary patriots.

(*a*) If two nouns refer to the same person or thing, the verb is singular; as, A good man and useful citizen *has* passed away.

Notice that the article *a* is used only once. If two persons were referred to, the article would be used before each noun, and the verb would be plural.

(*b*) If two subjects together express one idea, the verb may be in the singular; as, Early and often *fills* the purse.

(*c*) If the singular subjects are preceded by *each* or *every* the verb is usually singular; as, *Every* tree and shrub *was* covered with snow.

428. Two or more singular subjects joined by *or, either . . . or, neither . . . nor*, usually take a singular verb; as, Mr. Jones *or* his deputy *is* certain to be here.

The same rule applies to nouns connected by *with*; as, Mr. Brown, *with* his son, *has* just arrived.

429. A collective noun takes a *singular* verb when the collection is thought of as a unit; a *plural* verb when the individuals of which it is composed are thought of; as, The jury *was* discharged. The jury *were* divided in their opinions.

430. Some nouns which are plural in form, but singular in sense, take a singular verb; as, The news *was* received to-day. Forty dollars *is* too much for that watch. Civics *is* an interesting study. "The Green Mountain Boys" *has* delighted many readers.

EXERCISE 209

Explain the use of the singular or plural verbs in the following sentences: —

1. "The Pleasures of Hope" was written by Thomas Campbell.
2. A flock of birds were flying north.
3. Neither a physician nor a nurse was to be found.
4. The people were in favor of the measure.
5. Fifty dollars is too much.
6. Plutarch's "Lives" is an interesting book.
7. The whole spirit and tenor of his address was unworthy of the cause.
8. His honesty, if not his good judgment, is undoubted.
9. The whole flock of sheep was sold for eighty dollars.
10. A black and a white horse have strayed away.
11. Every boy and girl was ready.
12. The general, with three regiments of soldiers, was captured.
13. John, as well as Charles, deserves credit.
14. Measles is interfering with the attendance.
15. Slow and steady wins the race.
16. Bread and milk was his favorite food.
17. The whole multitude were shouting their applause.
18. A number of the men have disappeared.

CHAPTER CXVI

COMMON MISTAKES IN THE USE OF VERBS—I

431. Most mistakes in the use of verbs are due to some one of the following causes : —

1. Confusing two verbs whose forms or meanings are somewhat similar ; as, *lie* and *lay*, *sit* and *set*, *may* and *can*, *shall* and *will*.

2. Confusing two parts of the same verb. (*a*) Using the present for the past ; as, " I *see* him," for " I *saw* him." (*b*) Using the past participle for the past tense ; as, " He *done* well," for " He *did* well." (*c*) Using the past tense for the past participle in verb-phrases ; as, " He has *wrote*," for " He has *written*."

3. Employing a form that is not in good use ; as, He *catched* the ball.

4. Failure to make the verb agree with the subject in number and person ; as, Here *comes* John and Mary.

432. *Lie* and *lay*. The forms of these verbs are often confused.

Present	Past	Present Participle	Past Participle
lie (to recline)	lay	lying	lain
lay (to place)	laid	laying	laid

Lie is **intransitive** and takes no object.

Lay is **transitive** and takes an object.

EXERCISE 210

Change the verbs in the following sentences to the *past* tense : —

1. I lay aside my book. 2. He lies on the ground. 3. Who will lay the foundation? 4. The carpenter lays aside his tools. 5. The snow lies there till June. 6. I often lie awake till midnight.

EXERCISE 211

Fill the blanks in these sentences with the correct form of *lay* or *lie*, and give a reason for your choice.

1. The soldier —— down to rest (present tense). 2. The soldier —— down to rest (past tense). 3. Penn —— out the streets of his city. 4. The rain was rapidly —— the dust. 5. Yesterday the wind —— the corn flat. 6. He has —— there two hours. 7. The kittens are —— by the warm fire. 8. The town was —— out in squares. 9. —— the pencil on the desk, John. 10. The brick is being —— very rapidly. 11. Now I —— me down to sleep. 12. The tree —— where it fell. 13. The surveyor has —— out the road. 14. How long has this old tree —— here? 15. Who —— this wall? 16. A hen cackles when she has —— an egg. 17. The mason is —— brick. 18. The child is —— on the grass.

***Sit* and *set*.** — These verbs occasion many mistakes: —

PRESENT	PAST	PRESENT PARTICIPLE	PAST PARTICIPLE
sit	sat	sitting	sat
set	set	setting	set

Sit and *set* are similar in use to *lie* and *lay*. *Sit* is intransitive, and *set* is transitive.

NOTE.—The verb *set* is used intransitively in a few expressions; as, The sun *sets*. He *set* out on a journey.

EXERCISE 212

Use the correct form of *sit* and *set* in the following sentences: —

1. When I returned he —— near the door. 2. Will you —— the lamp near me? 3. He has —— out a row of trees. 4. They have —— all day long. 5. An old lady —— on the front seat. 6. We —— and listened to the music. 7. The traveler —— down beside the brook. 8. The glazier —— the glass. 9. We found John —— by the window.

EXERCISE 213

Use these forms correctly in sentences: —

Lie, lays, lay, lies, sits, sets, sit, set, are setting, has lain, sat, was set, has sat, was lying, was laying, was laid, have laid, have set, was setting, has been sitting.

434. ***May*** **and** ***can.*** — A common error is the use of *can* for *may* to express **permission.** "*May* I examine your book?" means, "Will you permit me to examine your book?" "*Can* you speak German?" means, "Are you **able** to speak German?" *May* sometimes expresses **possibility**: "It *may* rain," means, "It is possible that it will rain."

EXERCISE 214

Tell the meaning of *may* and *can* in the following sentences: —

1. Can you lift that box?
2. May I go to the party?
3. I cannot play that tune.
4. You may take what you want.
5. Your friend may come, but I doubt it.
6. No man can serve two masters.
7. My story may seem strange to you.
8. Two and two cannot make five.
9. We can make of life a palace or a prison.
10. What may I expect for a Christmas present?
11. The young may die, but the old must.
12. Defeat may be victory in disguise.
13. Even peace may be purchased at too high a cost.
14. A nation cannot afford to do a mean thing.
15. He who fights and runs away
    May live to fight another day;
    But he who is in battle slain
    Can never rise and fight again.

CHAPTER CXVII

COMMON MISTAKES IN THE USE OF VERBS — II

435. ***Shall* and *will*.** — To express simple future time, — that is, to tell what is sure to happen, or likely to happen, — *shall* is used in the first person, and *will* in the second and third persons. **This is the regular future tense.**

436. *Will* may be correctly used in the first person, and *shall* in the second and third, but the verb-phrases thus formed have **distinct meanings** of their own.

437. When *will* is used in the first person, it expresses a willingness, promise, or determination of the speaker.

I will carry your satchel. (Willingness.)
I will pay the bill next week. (Promise.)
I will go in spite of you. (Determination.)

438. When *shall* is used in the second or third person, it usually expresses a command, a promise, a threat, or a determination.

1. Thou shalt not steal. (Command.)
2. The men shall receive their pay to-night. (Promise.)
3. You shall be punished for this. (Threat.)
4. George shall offer you an apology. (Determination.)

Sentence 1 means that the speaker **commands** the person addressed not to steal. Sentence 2 means that the speaker **promises** to see that the men receive their pay. Sentence 3 means that the speaker **threatens** to see that the person addressed is punished. Sentence 4 means that the speaker is **determined** to make George apologize.

439. The chief difficulty in the use of *shall* and *will* is in the first person, where *will* is incorrectly used for *shall* in sentences like the following : —

We will miss the train. We will freeze in this room.

There is no idea of willingness or determination in the above sentences; they express simple futurity, foretell what is likely to happen, and *shall* is the proper auxiliary.

440. In questions, *will* is not used at all in the first person. In the second and third persons *shall* or *will* is used, according as *shall* or *will* is expected in the answer.

Shall you leave to-day? (I shall.)
Will you send me that book? (I will.)

HOW TO AVOID MISTAKES

441. Practically all mistakes in the use of *shall* and *will* arise from putting *will* for *shall*. These mistakes may be avoided by observing these three cautions : —

CAUTION 1. — *Will*, in the first person, should not be used to express simple futurity ; that is, to foretell what is likely to happen.

Say, "We *shall* be late," not, "We *will* be late."

CAUTION 2. — *Will* should not be used at all in the first person in asking questions.

Say, "*Shall* we begin?" not, "*Will* we begin?"

CAUTION 3. — *Will* should not be used in the second person in questions unless *will* is expected in the answer.

Say, "*Shall* you be disappointed?" not, "*Will* you," etc.

EXERCISE 215

Fill these blanks with *shall* or *will* to express simple futurity, without the idea of willingness, determination, promise, or compulsion : —

1. You —— not catch the train. 2. I —— start on Friday morning. 3. We —— feel fatigued after this long walk. 4. This long walk —— fatigue us. 5. I hope we —— have pleasant weather to-morrow. 6. I hope the weather —— be pleasant. 7. I fear we —— never find the money. 8. There —— be a full moon to-night.

EXERCISE 216

The simple future is not used in any of the following sentences. See if you can tell the meaning of *shall* or *will* in each sentence : —

1. I will try to do better the next time.
2. I will not employ a boy that smokes.
3. You shall go to school every day.
4. You shall have your money to-morrow.
5. We will come, as you request.
6. No dishonest clerk shall work for me.
7. I will succeed or die in the attempt.
8. You shall remain until you have learned your lesson.
9. Never again shall our flag be lowered.
10. I will abide on thy left side,
And keep the bridge with thee.

442. The same distinction is made between *should* and *would* as between *shall* and *will*.

I hope I *shall* see you.
I hoped I *should* (not *would*) see you.
I think he *will* come.
I thought he *would* come.
I fear we *shall* be cold.
I feared we *should* (not *would*) be cold.

443. *Should* expressing **obligation** is used in all persons ; as, *I*, *you*, *he*, should obey the laws.

EXERCISE 217

Fill the blanks with *shall*, *will*, *should*, or *would*, and give reasons : —

1. I hoped he —— not fail. 2. I feared I —— not be able to go. 3. You —— be hurt, if you are not careful. 4. I told you we —— be late if we did not hurry. 5. He said Thomas —— enter college next year. 6. Frank —— have another chance. 7. Blessed are the meek, for they —— inherit the earth. 8. You —— apologize for that. 9. I thought we —— freeze. 10. You —— not leave school

till noon. 11. The new schoolhouse —— be finished soon. 12. It —— be a long time before I see you again. 13. —— you kindly hold my horse? 14. —— the postoffice be open to-morrow? 15. We assured Charles that we —— all be anxious to hear him.

CHAPTER CXVIII

OTHER TROUBLESOME VERBS

444. There are about forty verbs whose principal parts are often confounded, thus leading to numberless mistakes. Four of these verbs, *lie*, *lay*, *sit*, *set*, have already been studied. The remainder receive special attention in the following lessons.

445. Do not use the present tense or the past participle for the past tense.

This mistake is common with the following verbs: —

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
come	came	come
do	did	done
give	gave	given
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen

EXERCISE 218

Fill each blank with the past tense of the given verb: —

1. I (give) him a good scolding. 2. Who (see) him do it? 3. Guess how much I (give). 4. You (give) more than the coat is worth. 5. This is the worst writing I ever (see). 6. I have lost the knife you (give) me. 7. I (do) the work alone. 8. I (see) him this morning. 9. The rain (come) down in torrents. 10. Joseph (run) all the way. 11. We think he (do) right. 12. The writing was excellent, as far as I (see). 13. When the shower (come), we (run) home. 14. Emma (do) her best to win the medal, but she (come) out second. 15. We (see) John before he (come).

446. Do not use the past tense for the past participle in forming verb-phrases.

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
go	went	gone
come	came	come
show	showed	shown
drive	drove	driven
ride	rode	ridden
freeze	froze	frozen
eat	ate	eaten

EXERCISE 219

Use the past participle of the given verb: —

1. Ella has (go) to the store. 2. The teacher has (come). 3. Who has (eat) the cake? 4. I have (freeze) my ears. 5. You have (drive) the horse too far. 6. We have (ride) twenty miles. 7. I have (show) the visitors around the building. 8. Who has (come)? 9. I have (eat) a hearty dinner. 10. The lights had (go) out. 11. I will not be (drive). 12. A free horse should not be (ride) to death. 13. Food should not be (eat) in haste. 14. The vessel was (drive) ashore. 15. He has (show) his true character. 16. The river was (freeze) over. 17. The wheel is (drive) by electricity. 18. Has George (go) to school? 19. Has it (come) to this? 20. What have you (eat)?

Change to the past tense the verbs in the first ten sentences above; as, Ella *went* to the store.

447. Here are seven other verbs whose past tense is often incorrectly used for the past participle in verb-phrases: —

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
shake	shook	shaken
take	took	taken
break	broke	broken
steal	stole	stolen
speak	spoke	spoken
write	wrote	written
rise	rose	risen

EXERCISE 220

Use the past participle of the given verb: —

1. The house was (shake) by the wind. 2. It has (take) four hours to finish the work. 3. Scarlet fever has (break) out. 4. Was the money lost or (steal)? 5. I have (speak) to you several times. 6. Have you (write) your composition? 7. The sun has (rise). 8. What has (shake) your confidence in me? 9. When was this photograph (take)? 10. All the windows were (break) by the explosion. 11. Who has (steal) my apple? 12. Many a true word is (speak) in jest. 13. "Enoch Arden" was (write) by Tennyson. 14. Do you want your picture (take)? 15. Four times the sun has (rise) and set.

448. There are eight verbs that have *i* in the present, *a* in the past, and *u* in the past participle. The *a*-forms of these verbs cannot be correctly used in verb-phrases.

For the past tense of these verbs good writers of the present time prefer the *a*-forms, but some of the *u*-forms are occasionally found, especially in poetry.

Present	Past	Past Participle
begin	began	begun
drink	drank	drunk
ring	rang	rung
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
spring	sprang	sprung
swim	swam	swum

EXERCISE 221

Change the italicized verbs to the present perfect tense; as, The snow *has begun* to fall.

1. The snow *begins* to fall. 2. The cows *drink* from the brook. 3. The sexton *rings* the bell. 4. He *springs* from his bed. 5. This cloth *shrinks*. 6. The hall *rings* with cheers. 7. The lady *sings* well. 8. My boat often *springs* a leak and *sinks* in the water.

9. I *drink* no coffee. 10. Hugh often *swims* across the river. 11. His work *begins* to show results. 12. Down *sinks* the ship. 13. I *shrink* from telling him. 14. The sun slowly *sinks* in the west. 15. The children *sing* "America." 16. The three boys *spring* into the water and *swim* a long distance.

Change each of the foregoing verbs to the past tense; as, The snow *began* to fall.

449. The following verbs are often incorrectly used as if they had "regular" forms in *ed* : —

PRESENT	PAST	PAST PARTICIPLE
blow	blew	blown
grow	grew	grown
know	knew	known
throw	threw	thrown
draw	drew	drawn
catch	caught	caught
teach	taught	taught
burst	burst	burst

EXERCISE 222

1. Use the past tense of the given verb: —

1. It rained and (blow) all day. 2. Benedict (know) it was Basil. 3. Benjamin Franklin (grow) up in Boston. 4. I (know) him the minute I (see) him. 5. Who (throw) that stone? 6. My mother (teach) me to read. 7. Louder and louder (blow) the wind. 8. The skipper's cheek (grow) pale. 9. Who (catch) the ball? 10. Who (draw) this map? 11. The balloon suddenly (burst).

2. Use the past participle of the given verb: —

1. How tall you have (grow)! 2. His mouth was (draw) out of shape. 3. The windows were (throw) open. 4. He should be (teach) better manners. 5. The powder mill has (blow) up. 6. The carriage was (draw) by four horses. 7. How long have you (know) him? 8. The man was (catch) in his own trap. 9. The ship's cargo was (throw) overboard. 10. The factory closed because the boiler had (burst).

CHAPTER CXIX

DEFECTIVE VERBS

450. Verbs that are not used in all the modes and tenses are said to be **defective.** The following are the most important defective verbs: —

PRESENT	PAST	PRESENT	PAST
can	could	shall	should
may	might	will	would
must	must		quoth
ought	ought		

All the above forms except *ought* and *quoth* are used as **auxiliaries**, and are more fully explained in the next chapter.

Quoth is used only in the past tense, with the subject following it; as, —

Quoth the raven, "Nevermore." — POE.

Ought, when used with a present infinitive, indicates **present** time; when used with the perfect infinitive, it indicates **past** time; as, —

You ought *to attend* school.
You ought *to have attended* school.

As *ought* is not a participle, the expressions *had ought* and *hadn't ought* are incorrect.

451. *Must* and *quoth* have no **inflection.** All defective verbs named above omit *s* in the third person singular of the present. In the second person singular (formal style), *ought* has *-est*, *shall* and *will* have *shalt* and *wilt*, the other verbs have *-st*; as, *mayst*, *wouldst*.

Conjugate *may* and *can* in the present, and *might*, *could*, *should*, and *would* in the past tense, using the verb *come*; as, I *may come*.

CHAPTER CXX

POTENTIAL VERB-PHRASES

452. Verb-phrases formed by joining the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *should*, and *would*, with the infinitive (without *to*), are used to denote **permission**, **possibility**, **power**, **necessity**, **obligation**, **determination**, and the like.

The common meanings of these auxiliaries are as follows: —

May and *might* express (*a*) **permission**, (*b*) **possibility**.

(*a*) { You *may* play until six o'clock.
Mother said I *might* play.

(*b*) { John *may* come, but he is not certain.
He said he *might* come.

Can and *could* express **power**, **ability**.

He *can* lift that box.
He said he *could* lift the box.

Must expresses **necessity**.

We *must* eat in order to live.

Should expresses (*a*) **obligation**, (*b*) **futurity**.

(*a*) Children *should* obey their parents.
(*b*) He said he *should* take the first train.
(He said, "I *shall* take the first train.")

Would expresses (*a*) **determination**, (*b*) **customary action**, (*c*) **willingness**.

(*a*) He *would* not stir an inch.
(*b*) He *would* sit and fish all day.
(*c*) He said he *would* come to-morrow.
(He said, "I will come to-morrow.")

453. Verb-forms like *may come*, *could lift*, *should obey*, and *would stir* are called **potential verb-phrases.** *Potential* means **powerful, possible.**

454. By using the perfect infinitive (without *to*) with *may* and *can* we make potential verb-phrases in the present perfect tense; as, He *may have come*. By using the perfect infinitive with *might*, *could*, and *would* we make the past perfect tense; as, He *might have gone*.

455. In potential verb-phrases the **infinitive** names the **action**, and the **auxiliary** shows the **manner** in which the action is asserted. In the sentence "You should study," *study* names the action, and *should* expresses obligation.

456. These auxiliaries do not express **time** with the same exactness as other verbs.

1. John *may* be at home *now*.
2. He *may* start *to-morrow*.
3. He *might* enter college *now*.
4. He *might* enter *next year*.

In sentences 1 and 3 *may* and *might* evidently refer to present time; in 2 and 4, to future time.

457. Notice that *may*, *can*, *shall*, and *will* usually change to *might*, *could*, *should*, and *would* when the principal verb changes from the present to the past.

He says that he *may, can, shall, will,* go.
He said that he *might, could, should, would,* go.

This relation between the tenses of complex sentences is called the **Sequence of Tenses.**

The modes of potential auxiliaries are explained in Chapter CXLIX.

EXERCISE 223

Select the potential verb-phrases in the following sentences. Explain the meaning and tell the tense of each.

1. You may put on your best coat.
2. We should look before we leap.

3. Who can work this example?
4. He may not arrive in time.
5. This may not be the best plan, but I can think of no other.
6. We must take things as they come.
7. The stones would often roll down and startle them at midnight.
8. He claimed that he could whip three Spaniards.
9. Fred asked me if I would go with him.
10. We should be kind to the unfortunate.
11. His physician told him he would soon recover.
12. My employer said I might take a vacation.
13. We found that he could speak English.
14. The speaker said he might not satisfy everybody.
15. Susan could not cough without pain.
16. You may have heard of my good luck.
17. Luke should not have run so fast.
18. He would do it in spite of all we could say.
19. You might have done much worse.
20. I wish you could have seen John.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Give a rule for the agreement of a verb with its subject. 2. Explain the number of the verbs in the following sentences: *Are John and Mary absent? Is he or George to blame? A number of men were standing about. Our team has been defeated. Is the news good or bad?* 3. Use the past tense of *lay* and *lie* in sentences; the past tense of *sit* and *set*. 4. Explain why these sentences are incorrect: *We will take cold without a fire. Will I answer this letter? I fear we will be late.* 5. Make sentences containing the past tense of the following verbs: *do, give, run, see.* 6. Use the following verbs in the present perfect tense: *go, come, drive, ride, freeze, eat.* 7. Use the following verbs in the passive voice: *shake, take, break, steal, speak, write.* 8. Use the following verbs in the past perfect tense, active voice: *begin, ring, sing, sink.* 9. Use the following verbs in the past tense, active voice: *blow, grow, throw, draw, catch, burst.*

10. What is a defective verb? 11. Give the past tense of *can, may, shall,* and *will.* 12. How does *ought* express present time? Past time? Give examples. 13. Use *ought* with *not.* 14. How are potential verb-phrases formed? 15. Explain the meaning of *may*

and *might;* of *can* and *could;* of *must; should, would.* 16. What does potential mean? 17. Inflect *can* in the present tense; *could* in the past tense. 18. In the sentence, *He says he will go*, change *says* to the past tense. What change must now be made in the form of *will?*

CHAPTER CXXI

HOW TO PARSE VERBS AND VERBALS

458. To parse a **verb** we tell: —

1. Its **class,** regular or irregular (weak or strong).
2. **Principal parts.**
3. Whether **transitive** or **intransitive.**
4. **Voice, mode, tense, person, number.**
5. **Syntax.**

Many things Nokomis *taught* him.

Taught is an irregular (weak) verb — *teach, taught, taught.* It is transitive, active voice, indicative mode, past tense, third person, singular number to agree with its subject *Nokomis.* It takes the direct object *things,* and the indirect object *him.*

459. To parse a **verbal** we tell: —

1. Whether it is an **infinitive,** a **participle,** or a **gerund.**
2. Its **tense** and **voice.**
3. The verb from which it is formed.
4. Its **syntax** or use.

Seizing a pen, he wrote a hasty letter.
It is sad *to be forgotten.*
Dynamite is used in *blasting* rocks.

Seizing is a participle, present, active, from the verb *seize.* It modifies the pronoun *he.*

To be forgotten is an infinitive, present, passive, from the verb *forget.* It is used as a noun in apposition with *it.*

Blasting is a gerund, present, active, from the verb *blast.* It is used as the object of the preposition *in.*

CHAPTER CXXII

ADVERBS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO MEANING

460. In § 101 adverbs were divided according to their meaning into four classes: —

1. Adverbs of **manner.**
2. Adverbs of **time.**
3. Adverbs of **place.**
4. Adverbs of **degree.**

To the above classes may be added: —

5. Adverbs of **number**; as, *once*, *twice*, *first*, *secondly*, etc.
6. Adverbs of **cause**; as, *why*, *therefore*, *wherefore.*
7. Adverbs of **affirmation** and **denial**; as, *yes*, *no*, *not.*

Yes or *no* when used alone in answer to a question stands as a substitute for the whole sentence, and thus saves repeating it; as: —

Does Mr. Jones live here? Yes.
Are you going to town? No.

The answer *yes* means, "Mr. Jones *does* live here."
The answer *no* means, "I am *not* going to town."
Several of the above adverbs may belong to more than one class.

I was *far* happier at home. (Degree.)
They searched *far* and near. (Place.)
She sang *delightfully.* (Manner.)
The weather is *delightfully* cool. (Degree.)
Are you ready to start? *No.* (Denial.)
The man is *no* better to-day. (Degree.)

461. Adverbial expressions like *at all*, *at once*, *by far*, *for good*, *in vain*, *on high*, *one by one*, are called **phrasal** adverbs.

CHAPTER CXXIII

ADVERBS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO USE

462. Notice how each adverb is used in these sentences: —

1. He had *already* finished the work.
2. *When* did your friend arrive?
3. This is the house *where* I board.

In sentence 1, the adverb *already* simply modifies the verb *had finished*.

In sentence 2, the adverb *when* modifies the verb *did arrive*, and also serves to ask a question.

In sentence 3, the adverb *where* modifies the verb *board*, and also *connects* the dependent clause, *I board*, with the principal clause, *this is the house*.

463. In accordance with the **uses** just illustrated, adverbs are divided into three classes: —

(1) **simple.**
(2) **interrogative.**
(3) **relative,** or conjunctive.

DEFINITIONS. — **A Simple Adverb is a modifier and nothing more**; as, The lowing herd winds *slowly* o'er the lea.

An Interrogative Adverb not only modifies some word, but also introduces a question; as, *Where* will this trouble end?

A Relative Adverb not only modifies some word in its own clause, but also connects its own clause with the rest of the sentence; as, I will come *when* I have finished the work.

Here *when* modifies the verb *have finished* and connects the subordinate clause, *I have finished the work*, with the main clause, *I will come*. The subordinate clause modifies the verb *will come* by showing *when*.

CHAPTER CXXIV

RELATIVE ADVERBS

464. The **Relative Adverb** resembles the **Relative Pronoun.**

1. In doing a **double work.** As the relative pronoun is both a pronoun and a connective, so the relative adverb is both an **adverb** and a **connective.**

2. In having an **antecedent,** either expressed or implied: —

This is the *man who* spoke last night. (Relative pronoun.)
This is the *spot where* General Warren fell. (Relative adverb.)

3. A relative adverb can be **replaced** by a relative pronoun without changing the sense.

He called *when* (at a time at which) I was busy.
That is the reason *why* (on account of which) I left.
I refused his request, *whereupon* (at which) he was angry.
Let us call *where* (at the place at which) he resides.
He forgets the imperial palace *whence* (from which) he came.
The foundation *whereon* (on which) they built was insecure.

465. The important relative adverbs are as follows: —

where	wherein	whereat	why
whence	whereby	when	how
whither	wherefore	whenever	as
wherever	whereon	while	

466. *As*, used as a relative adverb, may express —

1. *Manner:* Do *as* (in the way in which) I tell you.
2. *Time:* He arrived *as* (at the time at which) I was leaving.
3. *Degree:* He is as tall *as* (to that degree to which) I am (tall).

467. Some grammarians include *after*, *before*, *while*, *ere*, *till*, *until*, and *since* among the relative adverbs; but a little examination will show that these words do not modify any word in their own clause, and for this reason it is better to classify them as **conjunctions.**

468. A noun clause used as the object of a verb of *asking*, *telling*, *thinking*, *perceiving*, and the like, is often introduced by an **interrogative** adverb.

I asked *when* he returned.
You saw *how* it was done.
I could guess *where* he is.

In the last sentences, *when*, *how*, and *where* are not **relative** adverbs, but **interrogative** adverbs. They introduce indirect questions, the direct forms of which would be: *When did he return?* *How was it done?* *Where is he?*

469. The clause introduced by a relative adverb is a **modifying** clause. If it modifies a noun, it is an adjective clause; if it modifies a verb, it is an adverbial clause.

EXERCISE 224

Pick out the adverbs in the following sentences, and classify them as to **meaning** and as to **use**: —

1. Great bodies move slowly.
2. A danger foreseen is half avoided.
3. The morning was exceedingly frosty.
4. The bell rang softly from the ivy-covered tower.
5. Where, where was Roderick then? — Scott.
6. When bread is wanting, oaten cakes are excellent.
7. No one could tell how the matter was settled.
8. I cannot understand why he acts so strangely.
9. The house remains very nearly in its original state.
10. They came to the land whither they were sent.
11. Dan looked very manly and earnest as he faced his friends. — Alcott.
12. There are times wherein a man ought to be cautious. — Swift.
13. The long white horns of the cattle suddenly rose out of the grass.
14. News of the disaster was soon received, whereupon despondency seized the soldiers.
15. In the place where the tree falleth, there shall it lie.
16. Come as the winds come, when forests are rended. — Scott.

CHAPTER CXXV

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

470. Most adverbs of **manner** and **degree** admit of **comparison.** Such adverbs are generally compared like adjectives.

(*a*) Many adverbs of one syllable, and some of two syllables, form the comparative by adding *er*, and the superlative by adding *est*.

slow	slower	slowest	fast	faster	fastest
hard	harder	hardest	soon	sooner	soonest
near	nearer	nearest	often	oftener	oftenest
loud	louder	loudest	early	earlier	earliest

(*b*) Most adverbs ending in *ly* are compared by prefixing *more*, and *most* (or *less* and *least*).

swiftly	more swiftly	most swiftly
beautifully	more beautifully	most beautifully

471. Some adverbs are compared **irregularly.** *Ill*, *little*, *much*, *near*, *far*, and *late* have the same forms as the corresponding adjectives in § 321. *Good*, *bad*, *lesser* and *latter* are not used as adverbs, *well* taking the place of *good*, and *badly* taking the place of *bad*.

EXERCISE 225

1. Compare the following adverbs: —

Wisely, patiently, well, much, ill, far, high, badly, softly, suddenly, quick, hard.

2. Compare the adverbs that admit of comparison in Exercises 56 and 224.

CHAPTER CXXVI

SPECIAL USES OF ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS

472. An adverb may modify —

1. A **word**; as, The hours crept *slowly* by.

2. A **phrase**; as, This is *greatly* to his credit.

3. A **clause**; as, I dislike this place *simply* because the air is damp.

4. A **sentence**; as, *Possibly* he made a mistake. Here *possibly* does not modify the verb *made* alone. The meaning is, "It is possible that he made a mistake." Adverbs thus used are: *surely*, *certainly*, *assuredly*, *evidently*, *truly*, *undoubtedly*, *indeed*, *perhaps*, *possibly*, and a few others. They are called *modal* or *sentence* adverbs, because they affect the mode or manner of statement of the entire sentence.

473. DEFINITION. — **A Modal Adverb modifies a statement as a whole, and not a particular word**; as, He is *evidently* not feeling well.

474. Substitutes for adverbs. — The usual work of an adverb is to modify a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. It follows that any **word**, **phrase**, or **clause** that does this work, is an **adverbial modifier.**

1. A **noun**; as, waves *mountain* high; snow *ankle* deep; a book worth a *dollar*.

2. A **pronoun**; as, *that* much; *none* the worse.

3. An **adjective.** This use of adjectives is common in poetry; as, *Swift* fly the hours.

4. A **phrase**; as, The dog sleeps *on the hearth.* I come *to bury Cæsar.*

5. A **clause**; as, I gave him the letter *when he returned.*

CHAPTER CXXVII

COMMON MISTAKES IN THE USE OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

475. After such verbs as *feel, taste, smell, look, seem, turn,* we should use an *adjective* if we wish to describe the *subject,* an *adverb* if we wish to describe the *manner* of the action expressed by the verb.

1. I feel cold. 2. I feel this insult keenly.

It is evident that the word *cold*, in sentence 1, modifies the subject *I* rather than the verb *feels*. It describes the condition of the subject. But in sentence 2, the word *keenly* describes the action expressed by the verb *feel*.

476. When the verb has nearly the same meaning as the copula *be* (*is, are, was, were*), it requires an adjective (*not* an adverb) to complete its meaning (§ 82). "He *feels* cold" means nearly the same as "He *is* cold."

EXERCISE 226

Explain why the adjective or the adverb is used in each of these sentences: —

1. He turned pale. 2. The moon shone bright. 3. The work remains unfinished. 4. Roses smell fragrant. 5. She looks coldly on him. 6. He grew old in the service. 7. The board feels rough. 8. He handled the boy roughly. 9. He looks big. 10. The door stands open. 11. The speaker arose, calm and dignified. 12. The prisoner arose defiantly. 13. The rich are growing richer. 14. The artist looks proudly at his picture. 15. They arrived home safe. 16. Her dress looks neat. 17. She dresses neatly. 18. The dog looks fierce. 19. The man looked fiercely at me. 20. The pupils all sit erect. 21. I feel bad. 22. She writes badly.

EXERCISE 227

Tell whether the adjective or the adverb is required in each of these sentences. Give a reason for your opinion.

1. Honey tastes (sweet, sweetly). 2. He (frequent, frequently) tasted the honey. 3. Time passes (swift, swiftly). 4. The lady walks (graceful, gracefully). 5. He has grown (immense, immensely). 6. The tree grows (rapid, rapidly). 7. I replied (warm, warmly). 8. She dresses (elegant, elegantly). 9. I think (high, highly) of him. 10. The eagle soars (high, highly). 11. The girl does her work (neat, neatly). 12. The work looks (neat, neatly).

477. All modifying words should be so placed as to leave no doubt as to what word or words they are intended to modify.

1. The words *only*, *merely*, *not*, and *never* should as a rule be placed before the word or words they modify.

2. No word or words should be placed between *to* and the infinitive.

EXERCISE 228

In each of the following sentences so place the given adverb as to express the obvious meaning. If the adverb may be properly placed in more than one position, notice the effect of each position.

1. We can succeed by hard work (only). 2. Do not burn your house to rid it of mice (merely). 3. We should speak ill of the dead (never). 4. He was determined to allow any one to surpass him (not). 5. He aimed to perform every task (faithfully). 6. In the afternoon we reached the town (early). 7. He invited me to visit him (often). 8. The spider attempted to reach the beam (vainly). 9. His friends were influenced by his words (greatly). 10. I am determined to yield this point (never). 11. He thought himself a great man (really). 12. He intended to return (never). 13. He charged a dollar (only). 14. Men are successful when they are in earnest (only). 15. He tries to look pleasant (always). 16. She is a child (only). 17. We sank to the ankles in the mud (nearly). 18. My friend remained a few days (only). 19. I called to inquire about his health (merely). 20. Speak when you are spoken to (only). 21. I took what I could easily carry (merely). 22. Columbus asked Isabella to assist him (next). 23. It happened that he was called away from home (often). 24. The prisoner escaped by jumping from the window (only).

CHAPTER CXXVIII

HOW TO PARSE ADVERBS

478. To parse an **adverb** we tell (1) its **class**, according to meaning and use, (2) its **comparison** (if it can be compared), (3) its **syntax**, or use in the sentence.

EXAMPLES: 1. Why do you always walk so rapidly?
2. He found his tools where he left them.

Why is an interrogative adverb of cause, modifying the verb *do walk*.

Always is a simple adverb of time, modifying the verb *do walk*.

So is a simple adverb of degree, modifying the adverb *rapidly*.

Rapidly is a simple adverb of manner, modifying the verb *do walk*. (Compare it.)

Where is a relative adverb of place. It modifies the verb *left*, and connects its own clause with the verb *found*.

EXERCISE 229

Parse the adverbs in Exercises 62 and 224.

CHAPTER CXXIX

NOUNS USED AS ADVERBS

479. A noun without a preposition may be used to express an adverbial relation. In the sentence, "The man fell twenty feet," the expression *twenty feet* shows **how far** the man fell. Since *fell* is not a transitive verb, *feet* cannot be a direct object. It is used like an adverb to modify the verb *fell*.

480. A noun so used is called an **adverbial objective** because it is a noun in the **objective case** used like an **adverb**.

1. He remained a *month*. (Duration of time.)
2. They left this *morning*. (Time when.)

3. We walked ten *miles*. (Extent of space.)
4. The coal weighs two *tons*. (Measure of weight.)
5. The horse is worth fifty *dollars*. (Measure of value.)
6. I am three *inches* taller than you. (Degree of difference.)
7. The visitors went *home*. (Limit of motion.)
8. They met *face to face*. (Manner.)

The adverbial objective *month* shows **how long**; *morning* shows **when**; *miles* shows **how far**; *tons*, *dollars*, and *inches* show **how much**; *home* shows **whither**; *face to face* shows **in what manner**.

481. A noun used to express an adverbial relation of time, distance, space, weight, value, degree, or the like, is in the objective case; as, We were delayed five *days*.

An adverbial objective may modify a verb, an adjective, an adverb, or a preposition.

1. The soldiers *marched* all night. (Verb.)
2. My brother is six feet *tall*. (Adjective.)
3. He arrived two days *after*. (Adverb.)
4. He was a short distance *behind* me. (Preposition.)

NOTE. — An adverbial objective may be analyzed by diagram in the same manner as an adverb (§§ 110 and 234).

EXERCISE 230

In the following sentences pick out the adverbial objectives, and tell what each modifies. Notice whether the modified word is a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

1. The battle lasted six long hours. — MOTLEY.
2. We had a fair view of Provincetown five or six miles distant. — THOREAU.
3. He could not move a single pace. — BYRON.
4. We made a long march the remaining part of the day. — SWIFT.
5. The wretched parents all that night
   Went shouting far and wide. — WORDSWORTH.
6. The oak woods twenty-five years old were a mere scraggy shrubbery nine or ten feet high. — THOREAU.

7. Cowards die many times before their death. — SHAKESPEARE.

8. I have been here a month without writing a single line to my American friends. — ABIGAIL ADAMS.

9. They grew in beauty side by side. — HEMANS.

10. I saw the next summer a cow tethered by a rope six rods long. — THOREAU.

11. When I awoke the sun was several hours high.
— T. B. ALDRICH.

12. The British advanced a few rods. — PARKMAN.

13. Suddenly he saw, a long way before him, a black clump and a couple of lanterns. — STEVENSON.

14. His heart gave a leap and he sprang two steps back.
— STEVENSON.

15. A bowshot from her bower eaves,
He rode between the barley sheaves. — TENNYSON.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Classify these adverbs according to meaning: *cheerfully, very, everywhere, yesterday, twice, therefore, why, yes.* 2. What is a simple adverb? An interrogative adverb? A relative adverb? Use each kind in sentences. 3. How does a relative adverb resemble a relative pronoun? 4. Name five relative adverbs. 5. What kind of adverb is used in each of these sentences? *I will find out where he is. I will come when I have time.* 6. Explain three uses of *as.* 7. What is a modal adverb? 8. Give examples of a noun, a phrase, and a clause, used as an adverb. 9. When should we use an adverb and when an adjective after *feel, taste, smell, look, seem,* etc.? 10. Use *only* in this sentence, *He went home after working two hours.* 11. Compare the adverbs *slow, loud, rapidly, well, badly.* 12. In the sentence, *He lives ten miles beyond Chicago,* in which case is *miles?* What is this construction called?

CHAPTER CXXX

USES OF PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

482. The more important relations expressed by prepositional phrases are explained below. It will be observed that the classification is much like that of adverbs (§ 460).

1. **Place.** Phrases of place may denote —

(*a*) The place **in which** ; as, They reside *in Canada.*

(*b*) The place **from which** ; as, I have come *from home.*

(*c*) The place **to which** ; as, We start *for Chicago* to-day.

Many other phrases of place are used to limit verbs of motion by expressing **place and direction.**

The blaze goes leaping *up the chimney.*
The children hurried *down the stairs.*
Napoleon led his army *over the Alps.*

2. **Time.** Phrases of time may denote —

(*a*) **Time when** ; as, They called *about noon.*

(*b*) **Duration of time** ; as, They remained *through the winter.*

NOTE. — A phrase of place or time is an adjective phrase if it modifies a noun ; as, the fire *on the hearth ;* a walk *in the evening.*

3. **Manner** ; as, He plays *with great skill.*

4. **Purpose** ; as, He ran *for the doctor.*

5. **Cause** ; as, He was beheaded *for treason.*

6. **Agency** ; as, The house was painted *by Mr. Holt.*

NOTE. — Phrases of agency are used after passive verbs, and are usually introduced by the preposition *by.*

7. **Means or instrument** ; as, He fished *with a hook.*

NOTE. — Care must be taken to distinguish between the **agent**, or doer, and the **means**, or instrument.

1. The trees were trimmed *by the gardener.*
2. The gardener trimmed the *trees with a knife.*

In 1, the gardener is the **doer**, the prime mover, in trimming the trees. In 2, *knife* denotes the **instrument** employed by the gardener in trimming the trees.

8. **Degree** ; as, I am taller than you *by two inches.*

9. **Accompaniment** ; as, I went through Europe *with him.*

EXERCISE 231

In the following sentences, (1) pick out the prepositional phrases and classify each as adjective or adverbial; (2) tell what word each phrase modifies; (3) if it modifies a verb, classify it as a phrase of place, time, manner, etc.

1. Moles live under the ground.
2. At noon we see the sun in the south.
3. He resided in our town for many years.
4. Jesse was blamed for his carelessness.
5. They forced the gates with a battering-ram.
6. I would not be trifled with in this way.
7. The whole crowd shouted for joy.
8. The arm of the chair was mended with glue.
9. Mr. White was terribly bitten by a mad dog.
10. My son has succeeded beyond my expectations.
11. The grass is bright with raindrops. — WORDSWORTH.
12. I stood on the bridge at midnight. — LONGFELLOW.
13. Knowledge advances by steps and not by leaps. — MACAULAY.
14. Self-control is only courage under another form. — SMILES.
15. A newspaper is the history of the world for one day. — HORNE.
16. The wind of May is sweet with the breath of orchards. — BRYANT.
17. The air is perfumed by the sweetbrier and the wild rose. — IRVING.
18. We drank thankfully of this well by the wayside. — WINTHROP.
19. Her face was shaded by a broad straw hat with a flexible brim. — GEORGE MEREDITH.
20. An old man with a snow-white beard across the desert came. — HUDSON.
21. I walked with our kindly old doctor as far as the head of the stair. — TENNYSON.
22. The diction of Webster was formed by a careful study of Shakespeare and Milton. — J. F. RHODES.
23. The fittest place for man to die
    Is where he dies for man. — M. J. BARRY.
24. There came two blighting seasons when the fields were left with half a harvest. — TENNYSON.

EXERCISE 232

Expand these sentences by adding a prepositional phrase to the predicate.

1. They took the road which led (*place*).
2. We camped on Plum Island (*time*).
3. The deer was now terrified (*cause*).
4. The fawn lay curled up (*place*).
5. These strange events happened (*time*).
6. The fawn watched its mother (*manner*).
7. Indians scalp their prisoners (*instrument*).
8. The general crossed the river (*accompaniment*).
9. My cane is too long (*degree*).
10. The fort was captured (*agency*).
11. The deer have been exterminated (*agency*).
12. Half of the crew were sick (*cause*).
13. George prepares his lessons (*manner*).
14. The shipwrecked sailors escaped (*means*).
15. The attendance was very small (*cause*).
16. You may write your lesson (*instrument*).
17. Henry has gone fishing (*accompaniment*).
18. The frightened horse was stopped (*agency*).
19. Birds are sometimes caught (*means*).
20. They were unable to proceed (*cause*).

483. The object of a preposition is always a noun or an equivalent of a noun.

1. A **noun**; as, The steed along the *drawbridge* flies.

2. A **pronoun**; as, The bluebell is the flower for *me*.

3. An **adjective** used as a noun; as, He gives to the *poor*.

4. An **adverb** used as a noun; as, from *here* (= this place), till *now* (= this time), from *above* (= the place above).

5. A **noun phrase**; as, They are about *to leave town*. They came from *beyond the sea*.

6. A **noun clause**; as, It depends on *what your answer is*.

484. Two or more words used together are sometimes equivalent to a single preposition. Such combinations are called **phrasal prepositions**; as, *by means of*, *on account of*, *in spite of*, *because of*, *for the sake of*, *instead of*, etc.

485. Sometimes the preposition comes **after** its object, especially (*a*) in questions, (*b*) in relative clauses, (*c*) in poetry.

(*a*) *What* are you talking *about*?
(*b*) This is the matter *that* you spoke *of*.
(*c*) We sat the clean-winged *hearth about*.

EXERCISE 233

Form short sentences, each containing an adjective phrase introduced by the given preposition and modifying the given **noun**.

EXAMPLE: Your attendance at school is irregular.

Attendance at; dislike for; doubt about; failure of; glance at; hatred of; interest in; key to; need of; pride in; proof of.

EXERCISE 234

1. Form short sentences, each containing an adverbial phrase introduced by the given preposition and modifying the given **verb**.

EXAMPLE: I do not agree with you.

Agree with; apologize to; ask for; attend to; break into; complain of; correspond with; deal in; differ from; fall into.

2. Form short sentences, each containing an adverbial phrase introduced by the given preposition and modifying the given **adjective**.

Brave in; angry with; anxious about; careful of; eager for; familiar with; glad of; good for; sick of; slow in.

A prepositional phrase modifying an adjective usually shows in what **respect** the meaning of the adjective is true, and may be called a phrase of **specification**.

CHAPTER CXXXI

COMMON MISTAKES IN THE USE OF PREPOSITIONS

486. In, into. — The preposition *in* denotes activity or rest **inside** anything; *into* denotes motion **toward** the inside: —

The dog is *in* the barn.
The dog ran *into* the barn.

In, within. — *In* denotes the **close** of some period of time; *within* denotes a time **before** the close: —

I will pay the note *in* thirty days.
I will return the book *within* a week.

Between, among. — *Between* usually refers to **two** objects; *among* refers to **more than two.**

My house is *between* two churches.
There was discontent *among* the workmen.

Off, of. — *Off* is an adverb, but is sometimes used as a preposition. In the latter use, *off* means **away from.** *Of* means **proceeding from**, and hence denotes cause, source, material, ownership, and the like: —

He stepped *off* the car.
She died *of* scarlet fever.

Do not use the expression *off of;* as, He fell *off of* the roof.

To, from. — Use *from*, not *to*, with the adjective *different.*

This is different *from* that.

Home, at home. — After verbs denoting **motion toward,** *home* is used as an adverb without a preposition. After verbs of **rest**, the preposition *at* is used. *He is home* is incorrect.

The minister returned *home* last night.
He will remain *at home* until June.

EXERCISE 235

1. Fill the blanks in the following. Give a reason for your choice of words.

1. Bring your bicycle —— the house.
2. A laborer fell —— the roof.
3. The cows are standing —— water.
4. A dispute arose —— two brothers.
5. Birds sometimes build nests —— queer places.
6. The farmer then jumped —— his wagon.
7. The box is made —— solid mahogany.
8. There is some honor even —— thieves.
9. How different this lesson is —— the last one.
10. The men quarreled —— themselves.
11. I will return —— just one hour.
12. I shall see you a dozen times —— a month.

2. Fill these blanks with *home* or *at home*: —

1. They all arrived —— in good health.
2. He was not —— this morning.
3. I must send you —— for an excuse.
4. Barbara remained —— all last week.
5. Will your father be —— this evening?

487. To parse a preposition we tell: (1) the words between which it shows a relation, (2) the phrase which it introduces, (3) the syntax of the phrase.

EXAMPLE: The boy stood on the burning deck.

On is a preposition, showing a relation between the noun *deck* and the verb *stood*. It introduces the phrase *on the burning deck*, which is an adverbial phrase of place modifying the verb *stood*.

EXERCISE 236

Parse the prepositions in Exercises 67 and 110.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Make sentences containing prepositional phrases of *place*, *time*, *manner*, *cause*, *agency*, *means*, *degree*, and *accompaniment*. 2. Name five phrasal prepositions. 3. Explain the proper use of *in* and *into*; of *between* and *among*; of *home* and *at home*.

CHAPTER CXXXII

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS

COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

488. Examine carefully the following sentences: —

1. We could see the massive towers and tall spires of Oporto.
2. Night sank upon the dusky beach and on the purple sea.
3. Each heart recalled a different name,
   But all sang "Annie Laurie."
4. I know where he is and what he is doing.

In sentence 1, *and* connects two **words.** These two words are of the same "order" or rank, since they have the same relation to the rest of the sentence, both being objects of the verb *could see*.

In sentence 2, *and* connects two **phrases.** They are of the same rank, since they both modify the verb *sank*.

In sentence 3, *but* connects two **clauses.** They are of the same rank because each makes an independent statement.

In sentence 4, *and* connects two **dependent clauses.** They are of the same rank, since they are both noun clauses, the objects of the verb *know*.

489. Conjunctions that connect words, phrases, or clauses of the same rank are called **coördinate conjunctions.**

490. Clauses that are of the same order or rank in a sentence are called **coördinate clauses.** Such clauses are usually independent, but sometimes are dependent, as shown in sentence 4.

491. The simple coördinate conjunctions are *and*, *or*, and *but*. To these must be added certain words which are used in pairs and which when so used are called **correlative conjunctions**. The coördinate correlatives are: *both . . . and; not only . . . but also; either . . . or; neither . . . nor*.

Both Wellington *and* Nelson are buried in St. Paul's.
Not only men *but also* women vote in Wyoming.
Either you *or* I should attend the meeting.
Give me *neither* poverty *nor* riches.

492. It will be noticed that one part of the correlative is placed immediately **before** each of the connected words or phrases.

493. A common error in writing arises from a failure to observe the above rule. The sentence "Plants not only require water but also food," is wrong because the words to be connected are *water* and *food*. The sentence should read, "Plants require not only water but also food."

EXERCISE 237

Substitute correlatives for the simple conjunctions in these sentences: —

Both . . . and

1. Pennsylvania abounds in coal and iron.
2. New York harbor is broad and deep.
3. He injures himself and his neighbors.
4. Louisiana produces sugar and cotton.
5. Most lakes have inlets and outlets.
6. The storm wrought great havoc on land and sea.
7. I will return the books and papers.
8. He disregards our advice and our warnings.
9. The sun shines on the just and on the unjust.
10. They acted bravely and honorably.
11. I ask you to conduct yourselves decently and as becomes honorable men.

Not only . . . but also

1. They traveled in Germany and in Switzerland.
2. Air is something real and occupies space.
3. He was accused and convicted.
4. The soldiers marched and fought every day for a week.
5. Rivers supply water where needed and remove it when not wanted.

Either . . . or

1. We had rain or snow during the whole journey.
2. They spend their time in fishing or hunting.
3. He works at shoemaking or harness making.
4. Most men till the soil or are engaged in manufacturing.
5. Farmers prefer to live near a good wagon road or near a railroad station.

Neither . . . nor

1. I do not consider his answer just or courteous.
2. New England does not produce gold or silver.
3. He has no friends and he has no relations.
4. I was not favorably impressed with his looks or his appearance.
5. The king did not have the love or the respect of his people.

CHAPTER CXXXIII

SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS

494. Find the independent and the dependent clauses in each of the following sentences. How is each dependent clause joined to the main clause?

I came because you called me.
We work that we may eat.
He will come if he gets the letter.

495. Conjunctions that connect clauses of unequal rank are called **subordinate conjunctions.**

496. DEFINITIONS. — **A Coördinate Conjunction is a conjunction that connects words, phrases, or clauses of equal rank**; as, His hair is crisp, *and* black, *and* long.

A Subordinate Conjunction is a conjunction that connects clauses of unequal rank; as, I shall go *if* I am invited.

Correlative Conjunctions are conjunctions that are used in pairs; as, Give me *neither* poverty *nor* riches.

497. Subordinate conjunctions may be classified according to their meaning, as follows:—

Time: *after*, *before*, *ere*, *since*, *till*, *while*.
Cause: *because*, *since*, *for*, *as*.
Condition: *if*, *unless*, *except*.
Concession: *though*, *although*.
Purpose: *that*, *in order that*, *lest*.
Result: *that*, *so that*.
Degree: *than*, *as*.

To these should be added the conjunction *that*, introducing a noun clause (§ 159); as, I told him *that* he would fail.

498. Of the words given as conjunctions of time, *after* and *before* are strictly prepositions. But when they introduce clauses, it is better to classify them as conjunctions.

He arrived *after* the meeting. (Preposition.)
He arrived *after* the meeting was adjourned. (Conjunction.)

499. Groups of words used as conjunctions are called **phrasal conjunctions.** The following are the most important: *as if*, *as though*, *as well as*, *inasmuch as*, *except that*, *in order that*, *provided that*, *so that*.

500. To parse a conjunction, tell (1) its class (coördinate or subordinate); (2) what it connects; (3) if subordinate, tell whether the clause it introduces is used like a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

CHAPTER CXXXIV

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES CLASSIFIED—I

501. We have seen how prepositional phrases help to give variety and flexibility to our language. Subordinate clauses serve the same end by expressing a great variety of relations, such as time, place, cause, purpose, result, condition, concession, manner, and degree.

If the classification of these clauses seems difficult, it should be remembered that no language training is more valuable than that which gives us the power to understand what a sentence really means.

502. **Subordinate or dependent clauses** may be introduced by—

1. **Relative pronouns:** *who*, *which*, *what*, *that*, *whoever*, etc.
2. **Interrogative pronouns:** *who*, *which*, *what*.
3. **Relative adverbs:** *when*, *where*, *why*, *as*, etc.
4. **Interrogative adverbs:** *when*, *where*, *how*, *why*, etc.
5. **Subordinate conjunctions:** *because*, *though*, *unless*, etc.

1. He *that* is faultless is also lifeless. (Relative pronoun.)
2. I asked him *what* he wanted. (Interrogative pronoun.)
3. He stopped *where* John works. (Relative adverb.)
4. I know *where* John works. (Interrogative adverb.)
5. Helen will come *if* she can help you. (Conjunction.)

In sentences 2 and 4, there is an implied question, the direct form of which would be (in 2), "What do you want?" and (in 4), "Where does John work?"

503. The following classification relates particularly to **adverbial** clauses. But **noun** clauses of time, place, cause, and manner may be introduced by interrogative adverbs like *when*, *where*, *whence*, *whither*, *why*, and *how;* as, I cannot remember *where I left the umbrella.*

504. Likewise, **adjective** clauses of time, place, and cause may be introduced by such relative adverbs as *when*, *where*, *whence*, *why*, or by conjunctions of time, such as *before*, *after*, *until*; as, This is the place *where the accident occurred.*

505. Time. — We naturally regard a clause of time, place, or cause as adverbial, and for this reason it is important to remember that if such a clause modifies a noun it is an adjective clause; as, —

He called at an hour *when I was busy.* (Adjective.)
I will write *when I reach home.* (Adverbial.)

Clauses of time are introduced by *when*, *whenever*, *while*, *as* (= *time*), *before*, *after*, *until*, *since* (= *time*).

EXERCISE 238

Tell whether the subordinate clauses of time in the following sentences are adjective or adverbial : —

1. As I was leaving, a man touched me on the arm.
2. After this vote was taken, the meeting adjourned.
3. He helped me when I was without friends.
4. The week before we started was a very busy one.
5. When she came down, she greeted us with a smile.
6. Since you left the house, he has called three times.
7. It was an occasion when the bravest were fearful.
8. The movement was checked before it was fairly started.
9. I received your letter on the day before I left Galveston.
10. Whenever they captured a man they killed him.

506. Place. — Clauses of place, like those of time, may be adjective or adverbial.

He died in the town *where he was born.* (Adjective.)
Wherever I go I am sure to meet you. (Adverbial.)

Clauses of place are introduced by *where*, *whence*, *whither*, *wherever*, *whithersoever*, etc.

EXERCISE 239

Tell whether each subordinate clause in these sentences is adjective or adverbial : —

1. He turned his eyes to the bed where Sweetman lay.
2. They pitched their tents where sea winds blew.
3. The place where John Adams lived was called Braintree.
4. Not far away was a field wherein cows and sheep were feeding.
5. Whither thou goest, I will go.

507. Cause. — These clauses give the cause or reason for the truth of the assertion in the main clause ; as, —

The town surrendered *because the provisions were exhausted.*

Clauses of cause are introduced by *because*, and by other words and phrases denoting reason, such as *for*, *since*, *as*, *whereas*, *inasmuch as*, etc.

Remember that the classification of a clause depends on the thought, not entirely on the word that introduces it.

He has done well *since he went to Richmond.* (Time.)
I advised him to resign, *since he was dissatisfied.* (Cause.)

EXERCISE 240

Point out the clauses of cause in the following sentences, and tell what each modifies : —

1. Since you have asked me, I will tell you.
2. As the weather is cold, let us stay at home.
3. I must refuse your request, inasmuch as I believe it unreasonable.
4. Hendler was ill at ease, for the remark had nettled him.
5. I am disappointed that you have failed.
6. He blushes because he is guilty.
7. Are you not glad that the storm is over?
8. As Cæsar was ambitious, we slew him.
9. We postponed the journey because the weather was stormy.

CHAPTER CXXXV

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES CLASSIFIED — II

508. Purpose. — These clauses express the aim, end, or purpose of the action described in the main clause; as, —

Balloons are filled with hot air *that they may rise.*

Clauses of purpose are introduced by *that*, *in order that*, *so that*, and *lest* (= *that not*). *Lest* is used when the aim or purpose is to prevent a certain result; as, Take heed *lest ye fall* = *that ye do not fall.*

Purpose is also expressed by the infinitive (§ 365).

EXERCISE 241

Pick out the clauses of purpose, and tell what each modifies: —

1. Please keep quiet that all may hear the speaker.
2. Farmers work hard that they may have a harvest.
3. I walked with great care lest I should slip.
4. We put forth every effort that the affair might be successful.
5. That divers may not suffocate, diving bells are supplied with fresh air.

509. Result. — These clauses state the result or consequence of what is asserted in the main clause; as, —

The rain continued so long *that the rivers overflowed.*

Here the clause, *that the rivers overflowed*, modifies the adverb *so*, and *so* modifies the adverb *long*.

Clauses of result are introduced by *so that*. The *so* often modifies an adjective or an adverb in the main clause, as in the last example. *Such* sometimes takes the place of *so*.

EXERCISE 242

Mention the clauses of result, and tell what each modifies: —

1. The tree is so old that it bears no fruit.
2. His condition was such that he lost his position.
3. The sword was two-edged, so that I feared to handle it.
4. The injury was so serious that a surgeon was called.

510. Condition. — Conditional clauses are introduced by *if*, or some other word or words expressing condition.

When *if* means *whether*, it introduces a noun clause.

EXERCISE 243

Pick out the conditional clauses, and tell what each modifies: —

1. Open the window if you need more air.
2. Unless you hear from me, I shall be there.
3. I will give you a dollar if you will sing again.
4. We will not harm them unless they show fight.

Conditional clauses are more fully discussed in § 551.

511. Concession. — These clauses express something that is granted or conceded. The main clause states something as true *in spite of* the concession; as, *Though he worked hard*, he did not succeed.

Concessive clauses are introduced by *though*, *although*, *even if*, and other equivalent expressions.

EXERCISE 244

Pick out the concessive clauses, and tell what each modifies: —

1. Though it were my last dollar, I would give it to him.
2. I will defend this child even if I lose my life.
3. Ruffian though I was, my childhood had been happy.
4. Though the general was wounded, he refused to leave the field.

512. Manner. — These clauses show the manner in which the action asserted by the main verb is performed. Clauses of manner are introduced by *as*, *as if*, and *as though*.

EXERCISE 245

Find the clauses of manner, and tell what each modifies : —

1. Hold your pen as I do.
2. He acted as if he were guilty.
3. She kept on writing as though she did not hear.
4. As a hunter scours the woods, so our ship explored the fog.
5. Yet beautiful and bright he stood,
   As born to rule the storm.

513. Degree or Comparison. — These clauses show to what extent the statement in the main clause is true. They are introduced by *than*, *as*, *the*, and by phrasal conjunctions containing *as* (§ 499).

EXERCISE 246

Find the clauses of degree in the following sentences, and tell what each modifies : —

1. He is stronger than you are.
2. You know that as well as I do.
3. My burden is greater than I can bear.
4. He is as great as he is good.
5. The more money he has, the more he wants.
6. Come as the waves come,
   When navies are stranded ;
   Come as the winds come,
   When forests are rended.

In sentence 5, *the* is not the definite article, but an old demonstrative pronoun used as an adverb, — *that* more money he has, *that* more he wants.

CHAPTER CXXXVI

SPECIAL USES OF SUBORDINATE CONNECTIVES

514. The following connectives require special attention: —

1. **As** may introduce an **adverbial** clause of time, cause, manner, or degree.

2. **Since** may introduce an **adverbial** clause of time or cause.

3. **That** may introduce a **noun** clause, an **adjective** clause, or an **adverbial** clause of cause, purpose, or result.

4. **When** may introduce a **noun** clause, an **adjective** clause, or an **adverbial** clause of time or condition.

5. **Where** may introduce a **noun** clause, an **adjective** clause, or an **adverbial** clause of place.

6. **While** may introduce an **adverbial** clause of time or concession.

EXERCISE 247

Explain the dependent (subordinate) clauses in the following sentences: —

1. As you sow, you shall also reap.
2. It has rained every day since we left St. Louis.
3. He declared that the statement was untrue.
4. When the night is darkest, the dawn is nearest.
5. Every laborer dropped his pickax where he stood.
6. While money is a good thing, character is better.
7. The moon rose as the sun went down.
8. Since I received no reply I wrote again.
9. Vines are pruned that they may bear more fruit.
10. Please ask when the next train will leave.
11. Will you tell me where Mr. Wellman resides?
12. While there is life, there is hope.
13. That man is as strong as an ox.
14. The tree that you planted is doing well.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What is a coördinate conjunction? Name three. 2. What are coördinate clauses? 3. What are correlative conjunctions? Name four. 4. How should correlatives be placed in a sentence? 5. What is a subordinate conjunction? 6. Name five phrasal conjunctions. 7. Make sentences containing subordinate clauses of time, place, cause, purpose, result, condition, concession, manner, degree.

CHAPTER CXXXVII

USES OF PARTICIPLES

515. Participles have two distinct uses: —

1. They are used **to modify** nouns and pronouns; as, —

Tired with work, the men went home.

2. They are used with auxiliaries **to form verb-phrases**; as, —

A cloud had *covered* the sun.

EXERCISE 248

Find the participles in Exercises 169, 170, 181, and 202, and tell which of the above uses each illustrates.

516. A participle is occasionally used with both an adjective and an adverbial meaning; as, —

George came *rushing* along.

Here *rushing* not only modifies *George*, but shows the manner in which he came.

517. We have found that the verb-form ending in *-ing* may be —

1. A participle modifying a noun or pronoun (§ 368).
2. A participle used in a progressive verb-phrase (§ 415).
3. A descriptive adjective without verbal force (§ 372).
4. A gerund, or verbal noun (§ 382).
5. A common noun (§ 383).

EXERCISE 249

In the following sentences explain how the forms in *-ing* are used: —

1. The dog was barking at a flock of sheep, feeding in that part of the field. — MITFORD.

2. The rumbling of wheels was heard approaching swiftly along the winding road. — HAWTHORNE.

3. Turning our eyes to the vegetable creation, we find nothing there so beautiful as flowers. — BURKE.

4. The setting of a great hope is like the setting of the sun.
— LONGFELLOW.

5. The jingling of the guinea helps the hurt that honor feels.
— TENNYSON.

6. Toiling, rejoicing, sorrowing,
Onward through life he goes. — LONGFELLOW.

7. I do not go upstairs to bed two nights out of seven without taking Washington Irving under my arm. — DICKENS.

8. To be prepared for war is one of the most effectual ways of preserving peace. — WASHINGTON.

9. There came a stirring wind from the east, and the sea began to moan. — BLACK.

10. Ah! then and there was hurrying to and fro,
And gathering tears and tremblings of distress. — BYRON.

11. I have no recollection of ever having been punished at home either by scolding or by the rod. — GRANT.

12. I was employed in cutting the wicks for candles, filling the dipping molds, attending the shop, going errands, etc. — FRANKLIN.

13. The sun came dazzling through the leaves. — TENNYSON.

14. Any life that is worth living must be a struggle, a swimming, not with but against the stream. — STANLEY.

15. Sailing, we glide over the waters blue.

16. Our days are passing swiftly by.

17. In the counting room I was employed all day.

18. Wearing out is better than rusting out.

19. The verb-form ending in *-ing* may be a participle modifying a noun or pronoun.

CHAPTER CXXXVIII

PARTICIPLES EQUIVALENT TO CLAUSES

518. Participles sometimes contain an **implied** meaning which may be more fully expressed by changing the participial phrase to a clause. These implied meanings are usually (*a*) time, (*b*) cause, (*c*) concession, or (*d*) condition.

(*a*) Having burned the bridge (=after they had burned the bridge), the enemy retreated.

(*b*) Being dissatisfied (=because he was dissatisfied), he resigned his position.

(*c*) He being dead (=although he is dead), yet speaketh.

(*d*) Following this path (=if you follow this path), you will come to the brook.

EXERCISE 250

Change each participial phrase to a clause of time, cause, condition, or concession: —

1. The ground being covered with snow, the fox was easily tracked.
2. The war being ended, Washington resigned his commission.
3. Abounding in riches, the old miser died alone.
4. Knowing that his crime was discovered, the man made no effort to escape.
5. Our party consisted of fourteen persons, including the servants.
6. Failing to obtain other employment, the disappointed boy enlisted in the regular army.
7. Possessing talents of a high order, George Snell never found work to his liking.
8. Everything being in readiness, Columbus sailed from Palos.
9. Seeing the goat, the lion paused in surprise.
10. Running every step of the way, he still missed the train.

EXERCISE 251

Change each adverbial clause to a participial phrase: —

1. When we reached Andover, we put up at a farmhouse.
2. While he was walking on the roof, he slipped and fell.
3. Since the old man was lame, he walked slowly.
4. Though he had great opportunities, he accomplished little.
5. If you prove false in one thing, you will seem false in all.
6. The school was dismissed because the teacher was ill.
7. When the lamp was lighted, we found the ring.
8. When night came on, we lighted a fire.
9. Since the day was fair, we took a long walk.
10. As soon as the troops were in position, the signal was given.
11. When he saw that he was discovered, he took to his heels and ran briskly away.
12. Where there is so much smoke, there must be some fire.
13. When the lamps are lighted, the story-telling begins.

CHAPTER CXXXIX

THE NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE

519. The changing of a clause to a phrase, as in the last exercise, sometimes gives us a construction like the one in the second sentence below: —

As the snow was deep, our progress was slow.
The snow being deep, our progress was slow.

Though the above sentences are alike in meaning, they show an important difference in form.

In the first sentence we have an adverbial clause of cause or reason introduced by *as*. In the second, the conjunction *as* is omitted, and the verb is changed to a participle modifying the noun *snow*, and *snow* is thus left without any grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence.

520. A noun or pronoun used with a participle to express the time, cause, condition, or circumstance of an action, is in the nominative case; as, Away went George, his *nerves* quivering with excitement.

A noun or pronoun thus used is called a **nominative absolute**. *Absolute* means **set free**, such a nominative being grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence.

In this construction the participle of the verb *be* (*being*, *having been*) is sometimes omitted; as, Dinner over, they hurried away.

EXERCISE 252

Pick out a nominative absolute in each sentence, and name the participle, expressed or implied, with which it is used. Notice the punctuation. (See page 387.)

1. The river being frozen over, they were obliged to perform the journey by land. — IRVING.

2. Success surely comes with conscience in the long run, other things being equal. — BEECHER.

3. The supper being over, the strangers requested to be shown to their places of repose. — HAWTHORNE.

4. Poor Archie toddled after, his baby heart filled with mourning. — J. HAWTHORNE.

5. This done, she turned to the old man with a lovely smile on her face. — DICKENS.

6. He stood there for some time, the light from the rooms on his pale face. — THACKERAY.

7. The village was more than half a mile long, the cottages being divided from each other by gardens. — SCOTT.

8. It is the first mild day of March,
Each minute sweeter than before. — WORDSWORTH.

Examine the preceding sentences carefully and tell whether each absolute construction denotes time, cause, or a circumstance of the action.

EXERCISE 253

1. Change the absolute construction to a subordinate clause : —

1. Four days having passed without a reply, I wrote again.
2. Winter coming on, the grasshopper had no food.
3. Years having passed, the old man again visited the town.
4. It was a beautiful scene, October having painted the leaves in vivid colors.
5. She passed a lonely night, the storm making it impossible for the others to return.
6. The rain being over, the stars came out.
7. The dark coming on, we lighted the lamps.

2. Change the subordinate clause to the absolute construction : —

1. As there was no moon, the night was exceedingly dark.
2. His companions sneaked away into the thicket, because the mere sight of a bear had destroyed their courage.
3. After the miser died, nobody knew where to find his money.
4. Cornwallis was compelled to surrender because the French fleet cut off his escape.
5. When Congress decided to raise an army, Washington was made its commander.
6. Since there were no provisions left, we sent two of our party to the nearest village.
7. When John came of age, he gained control of his fortune.
8. As the weather was so stormy, we postponed our journey.
9. After the storm was over, the blue sky appeared.

ANALYSIS. — Nominative absolute.

snow
~ | being < deep

progress | was < slow
our

Since the noun *snow* is used independently, it is placed above the sentence (§ 164). The phrase *being deep* is a modifier of *snow*. *Deep* is a complement of *being*, and belongs to *snow*. Notice that there is no line connecting *snow* and its modifier with the sentence line.

CHAPTER CXL

EXCLAMATORY NOMINATIVE

521. A noun or pronoun used in an exclamation without a verb is in the nominative case; as, Poor *man!* I pity him. A noun so used is called an **Exclamatory Nominative.**

This construction should not be confused with the nominative of address. In the last example, the *man* is not regarded as present, and therefore is not addressed.

EXERCISE 254

Pick out the exclamatory nominatives, and explain why they cannot be considered "vocatives" (§ 29) : —

1. O sleep! it is a gentle thing,
   Beloved from pole to pole. — COLERIDGE.
2. Religion! what treasure untold,
   Resides in that heavenly word. — COWPER.
3. O dream of joy! is this indeed,
   The lighthouse top I see? — COLERIDGE.
4. Oh, the wild charge they made! — TENNYSON.
5. O the famine and the fever! — LONGFELLOW.
6. The red old hills of Georgia!
   My heart is on them now. — H. R. JACKSON.

CHAPTER CXLI

THE OBJECTIVE COMPLEMENT

522. A few transitive verbs of *making*, *calling*, *choosing*, *naming*, *thinking*, and the like, take a direct object and also a second object, to complete the meaning of the predicate

1. They have made Jenkins foreman.
2. The club chose Robert president.
3. I consider the man trustworthy.

If we omit the words *foreman*, *president*, and ***trustworthy***, the above sentences do not make complete statements. Each of these words completes the meaning of a verb and is therefore a complement. It also explains the direct object of the verb and is for this reason called an **objective complement**. It should be noticed that in sentences 1 and 2, the objective complement is a noun, while in 3 it is an adjective.

523. Verbs of making, calling, choosing, naming, thinking, and the like, may take two objects; as, God called the *light day*. The second object is called an **Objective Complement** or a factitive object.

EXERCISE 255

Find the objective complements in the following sentences: —

1. The umpire decided the game lost. 2. Everybody thought him crazy. 3. He painted his house white. 4. Do you consider your friend a poet? 5. He makes me angry. 6. Dig the well deep. 7. How high shall we build the chimney? 8. We made Arthur umpire. 9. Open the window wide. 10. The Arabians consider the camel a gift from Heaven. 11. Some reckon Victor Hugo the greatest of French authors. 12. Philip thought himself a great king. 13. We call the science of the heavenly bodies astronomy. 14. The Northmen named the country which they discovered Vinland. 15. We make our fortunes and call them fate. 16. I count my health my greatest wealth.

ANALYSIS. — Objective complement.

They | made > Arthur < umpire. As the two objects of *made* refer to the same person, a *vinculum* is placed over them. The second pointer (<) shows that *umpire* is a complement of the object *Arthur*.

524. When verbs of *making*, *calling*, *choosing*, *naming*, *thinking*, and the like, are changed from the active to the passive voice, the objective complement becomes a predicate noun or predicate adjective (attribute complement).

EXERCISE 256

Change each sentence in Exercise 255 to the passive form, and point out the complements.

CHAPTER CXLII

SPECIAL USES OF THE OBJECTIVE CASE

525. Some verbs otherwise intransitive may take an object of kindred meaning; as, —

Let me die the *death* of the righteous.

Notice that the meaning of the verb *die* is repeated in its object *death*. A noun so used is called a **Cognate Object.** *Cognate* means **related.** A cognate object is always closely related to its verb either in derivation or in meaning.

Examples may be found in the following: —

1. I have fought a good fight.
2. The king's baker dreamed a dream.
3. For thirteen hours he ran a desperate race.
4. Our friend has lived a useful life.
5. He smiled on those bold Romans
   A smile serene and high.

526. When verbs that take both an indirect and a direct object in the active voice are changed to the passive, either object may become the subject: —

1. They gave me a ticket. (Active.)
2. A ticket was given me. (Passive.)
3. I was given a ticket. (Passive.)

In sentence 1, *me* is the indirect, and *ticket* the direct object of the verb *gave*. In 2, the direct object is made the subject, and *me* is still the indirect object. In 3, the indirect object is made the subject, and the direct object *ticket* is retained, though the verb is now passive. A word thus used is called a **Retained Object.**

EXERCISE 257

Pick out the indirect and the retained objects in the following sentences: —

1. I have just been handed a letter. 2. A pension has been granted the soldier. 3. The children were left a large estate by their father. 4. I was paid the money yesterday. 5. Cæsar was offered a crown. 6. Why was that man refused admittance? 7. His friends have lent him much money. 8. A watch was given Jennie by her brother. 9. A ring was promised me. 10. We were shown the pictures. 11. The reading of your letter afforded me great pleasure. 12. Can you spare me five dollars? 13. I was taught music by Mr. Baker. 14. We were all promised a holiday. 15. Each man was given a flag.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Explain the two most important uses of participles. Give an example of each use. 2. Illustrate the adverbial use of participles. 3. Illustrate five different uses of verb-forms in *-ing*. 4. Write sentences containing participles expressing (*a*) time, (*b*) cause. Change the participles to clauses. 5. In the sentence, *The roads being muddy, our progress was slow*, in what case is *roads*? 6. What is this construction called? 7. In the last-quoted sentence change the absolute construction to a clause. 8. How does the exclamatory nominative differ from a vocative? Give examples of each. 9. What verbs have objective complements? Illustrate. 10. What becomes of the objective complement when the verb is changed to the passive form? Explain. 11. In the sentence, *A scornful laugh laughed he*, how do you parse *laugh*? 12. What is this construction called? 13. What is meant by retained object?

CHAPTER CXLIII

SPECIAL USES OF NOUN CLAUSES

527. In § 160, we found that a noun clause may be the subject or the object of a verb. The following sentences show that a noun clause may also be used as an appositive, or as the complement of a verb : —

1. It is evident that he does not believe you.
2. My belief is that the factory will close.

In sentence 1, the pronoun *it* stands for the noun clause *that he does not believe you*. *It* is the subject of the sentence, with the noun clause in apposition. *What* is evident?

In sentence 2, the noun clause *that the factory will close* is used as a predicate noun to complete the meaning of the verb *is*. The clause explains the subject *belief*. *What* is my belief?

EXERCISE 258

Pick out the noun clauses, and tell whether each is used as an appositive or as a predicate noun.

1. He made a promise that he would return soon.
2. His promise was that he would return soon.
3. He expressed a hope that you would visit him again.
4. My expectation is that my brother will arrive to-morrow.
5. The fact that the earth is round can be easily shown.
6. The probability is that it will rain to-morrow.
7. The belief that the soul is immortal is almost universal.
8. The verdict of the jury is that the prisoner is guilty.
9. It is evident that your friend is not succeeding.
10. Your request that I address the meeting was unexpected.
11. Your brother made one earnest request, that I forward you this ring.
12. It is a well-known fact that the earth is flattened at the poles.

13. The report had now gone abroad that this simple husbandman had ideas unlike other men. — HAWTHORNE.

14. It was well known that there was an old fox with his family living in the neighborhood. — THOMPSON-SETON.

15. The strongest heart will faint sometimes under the feeling that enemies are bitter, and that friends know only half its sorrow. — GEORGE ELIOT.

528. ANALYSIS. — Noun clause as appositive or complement.

1. It is plain that you are wrong.
2. The indication is that it will rain.

It = that you | are < wrong | is < plain

The simple subject is the pronoun *it*, with the noun clause in apposition (§ 240).

indication | is < that it | will rain

The noun clause completes the meaning of the verb *is*.

Analyze the sentences in Exercise 258.

529. The second sentence below presents a peculiar construction : —

1. I am hopeful of her recovery.
2. I am hopeful that she will recover.

Notice that in the first of the above sentences the noun *recovery* requires a **preposition** before it to show its relation to the adjective *hopeful*, while in the second sentence the noun clause *that she will recover* is added directly to the adjective, **without a preposition.**

The noun clause is here used **adverbially** to modify the adjective. It shows **in what respect** the statement *I am hopeful* is true. This use of the noun clause resembles the adverbial objective (§ 479).

530. Noun clauses are thus used after some nouns and intransitive verbs, but more frequently after such adjectives as *aware*, *certain*, *confident*, *conscious*, *desirous*, *fearful*, *hopeful*, *positive*, *sorry*, *sure*, *suspicious*, etc.

EXERCISE 259

Explain the use of each noun clause.

1. I am certain that it will rain. 2. Are you aware what you are doing? 3. I feel sure that the sun will come out. 4. He is suspicious that something is wrong. 5. Everybody is sorry that he failed. 6. The officer has been allowed what he asked for (§ 526). 7. Are you convinced that the prisoner is guilty? 8. I am astonished that you should do this. 9. He is fearful that his son was in the wreck. 10. Are you positive which one you saw? 11. Let us have faith that Right makes Might. 12. We were told that the roads were heavy. 13. Sir Walter awoke perfectly conscious where he was. 14. I soon became aware who he was. 15. He was sensible that Mr. Bradwardine had acted with the most scrupulous delicacy.

CHAPTER CXLIV

SUBJECT OF THE INFINITIVE

531. While the following sentences differ in form, it is plain that they express the same meaning.

1. I know that he is trustworthy.
2. I know him to be trustworthy.

In sentence 1, the direct object of the verb *know* is the noun clause *he is trustworthy*. In sentence 2, the noun clause is changed to the infinitive phrase *him to be trustworthy*, and this phrase is the object of the verb *know*. The verb *is* is changed to the infinitive, and at the same time the pronoun *he* is changed to the objective form *him*. It is plain that *him* in sentence 2 is, in a certain sense, a subject, since it performs the same office as *he* in sentence 1.

532. Some verbs can take as an object a phrase consisting of a noun or pronoun followed by an infinitive.

A noun or pronoun so used is called **the subject of the infinitive.**

533. This construction is common after verbs of *knowing*, *telling*, *thinking*, *perceiving*, *believing*, *commanding*, *wishing*, and the like.

534. A noun or pronoun used to complete the meaning of an **infinitive with a subject** is in the **objective** case; as, I knew it to be *her*. They wanted George to be *umpire*.

NOTE.— A phrase has been defined (§ 119) as "a group of related words having neither subject nor predicate." This is true so far as a regular subject nominative is concerned, but the expression "subject of an infinitive phrase" may lead to confusion, unless the seeming exception is carefully noted. Some grammarians call such constructions "infinitive clauses."

EXERCISE 260

In the following sentences, (1) pick out the phrase which is the object of the principal verb; (2) name the infinitive and its subject; (3) change the infinitive phrase to a noun clause introduced by *that*.

1. I consider this to be a great blunder.
2. We perceived a storm to be approaching.
3. Some thought the man to be insane.
4. I believe the whole plan to have been a mistake.
5. The scouts reported the enemy to be near.
6. I requested him to make me a visit.
7. The judge ordered the prisoner to stand up.
8. England expects every man to do his duty.
9. The teacher declared she knew it to be him.
10. Mr. Comstock wishes his son to become a minister.

535. The infinitive without *to* is used after *let*, *see*, *hear*, and some other verbs (§ 360). *Let*, with an infinitive, is used for the imperative of the first and third persons; as, *Let* us take a walk.

EXERCISE 261

Name the infinitives and their subjects in the following sentences: —

1. We saw the lights go out.
2. I watched the lovely evening fade away.
3. I saw Mark Antony offer him a crown.
4. He heard the birds their morning carols sing.
5. I watched the little children play.
6. I rose to see the sun come out of the water.
7. Some heard invisible troops of horses gallop through the air.
8. I saw him beat the surges under him and ride upon their backs.
9. Let not your heart be troubled.
10. Let us carefully consider this matter.
11. Come, let us reason together.
12. I watched the stars come out one by one.
13. I see the lights in the village
    Gleam through the rain and the mist.
14. We heard the engine shriek.
15. He dares not do it.
16. As the child awoke, I heard it cry.
17. I bade him return at once.
18. Do not let the fire go out.
19. We need not start so soon.
20. Money makes the mare go.

536. ANALYSIS. — Infinitives with a subject.

We heard the bells ring.

We | heard > bells ‖ ring — The object of *heard* is the noun phrase *bells ring*. The line above the phrase shows that the phrase is used as a part of speech. The two vertical lines between *bells* and *ring* shows that these words are not subject and predicate in the ordinary sense.

Let music swell the breeze.

(You) | Let > music ‖ swell > breeze — *Let* is a transitive verb; its object is the noun phrase *music swell the breeze*. The sentence means *Cause music to swell the breeze.*

CHAPTER CXLV

USES OF THE INFINITIVE

537. The following summary of the uses of the infinitive will prove convenient for review and for reference. A few rare or extremely idiomatic uses are purposely omitted.

538. The infinitive used as a **noun.**

1. The subject of a verb:—

To whisper in company is impolite.

2. The object of a transitive verb:—

He never refused to assist a neighbor.

3. With a subject in the objective case:—

I heard the door open.

4. The object of a preposition:—

He was *about* to open the door.

5. The complement of an intransitive verb (= predicate noun):—

My design was to continue quiet till night.

6. An appositive.

(*a*) In apposition with the pronoun *it*:—

He declared it was of no use to work his farm.

(*b*) In apposition with a noun:—

The order to shoot the fox was not carried out.

539. The infinitive used as an **adjective.**

1. The modifier of a noun:—

They now had time to sleep.

2. The complement of an intransitive verb (= predicate adjective):—

This mistake is to be deplored (= deplorable).

540. The infinitive used as an **adverb.**

1. The infinitive may modify a **verb** by expressing —

(*a*) Purpose : —

The deer came down to feed on the lily pads.

(*b*) Result : —

The ship sank never to rise again.

(*c*) Cause. The infinitive of cause usually follows a verb expressing a feeling such as *joy*, *sorrow*, or *surprise* : —

I am pleased to see you.

(*d*) Condition : —

To hear him talk, you would think him a great man.
(To hear = if you should hear.)

2. An infinitive may limit the application of an **adjective** (§ 365) : —

I was anxious to reach the next town.

3. An infinitive sometimes modifies an **adverb** : —

He moved just sufficiently to avoid the sun.

Too or *enough* modifying an adjective or an adverb, and *as* preceded by *so*, *such*, and the like, may be followed by an infinitive of result : —

His loss was such as to discourage any one.

541. An infinitive is sometimes used independently : —

To tell the truth, I kept away intentionally.

542. When the infinitive *to be* has a subject, the predicate noun or pronoun is in the objective case to agree with the subject.

1. We all knew *it* to be *him*.
2. They did not imagine *it* to be *me*.
3. Who would believe that *woman* to be *her*?
4. *Whom* did they think *me* to be?
5. They requested *me* to be *chairman*.
6. You evidently supposed *Frank* to be your *friend*.

543. When *to be* has no subject, the predicate noun or pronoun is in the nominative case.

1. The lady in black seems to be *she*.
2. That tall man is supposed to be *he*.
3. *Who* was I thought to be?
4. Your brother seems to be a good *actor*.
5. This appears to have been the best *plan*.

NOTE. — The *present* infinitive should be used unless the infinitive refers to a time prior to that of the principal verb.

Daniel Webster wanted *to be* President.

Æsop is said *to have been* a slave.

EXERCISE 262

Explain fully the use of each infinitive in the following sentences: —

1. No children run to lisp their sire's return. — GRAY.
2. The evening primrose was ready to burst. — SOUTHEY.
3. Bliss was it in that early dawn to be alive. — WORDSWORTH.
4. I wish no living thing to suffer pain. — SHELLEY.
5. The children were allowed to eat cherries. — MITFORD.
6. Nature fits all her children with something to do. — LOWELL.
7. We are apt to shut our eyes against a painful truth. — HENRY.
8. Costly apparatus and splendid cabinets have no magical power to make scholars. — WEBSTER.
9. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen. — GRAY.
10. We grumble a little now and then, to be sure. — GOLDSMITH.
11. Sometimes one of my relations or acquaintances is so obliging as to ask me to dinner. — DICKENS.
12. To make a long story short, the party broke up and returned to the more important concerns of the election. — IRVING.
13. The son of sixty kings is to die on the scaffold. — CARLYLE.
14. A bad man is like an earthen vessel, easy to break and hard to mend. — PROVERB.
15. Once to every man and nation comes the moment to decide. — LOWELL.
16. He maketh me to lie down in green pastures. — BIBLE.
17. The voices of animals have a familiar character not to be mistaken. — AGASSIZ.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Make a sentence containing a noun clause as (*a*) subject, (*b*) object, (*c*) appositive, (*d*) complement. 2. Explain the noun clause in *I am surprised that you told him.* 3. In the sentence, *I know him to be honest*, what is the object of *know?* Change the phrase to a clause. What is the syntax of *him?* 4. Make a sentence containing an infinitive used as (*a*) subject, (*b*) object of a verb, (*c*) object of a preposition, (*d*) appositive.

CHAPTER CXLVI

FORMS OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

544. Only two tenses of the indicative and subjunctive, and those only in the active voice, are formed by inflection; that is, without the help of auxiliary verbs. In these two tenses, the verb *to be* has several distinct subjunctive forms. In other verbs, the subjunctive differs from the indicative only in the second and third person singular of the present.

545. As the second person singular is no longer used, except in formal language, the only vital distinction in form which the subjunctive now possesses, aside from the verb *to be*, consists in omitting the *s* in the third person singular of the present tense.

546. Thus the use of the subjunctive, so far as distinct subjunctive forms are concerned, is mostly confined to the present and past tenses of the verb *to be*, and there is a growing disposition to disregard even these forms, especially in the present tense. Very few people, even among the educated, say, "I will come if it *be* possible." We do still use the subjunctive in such expressions as, "If I *were* in your place," "I wish he *were* here," and this is about all that is left of the subjunctive as a separate inflected mode in the ordinary speech of to-day.

547. If, however, we carefully regard the **meaning**, as well as the **form**, then the subjunctive is still in common use. In the sentence, "If he had come, he would have helped us," the verb *had come* might be indicative so far as form goes, but in meaning it is subjunctive, because it expresses a condition contrary to fact. In like manner, *would have helped* is equivalent to a subjunctive, because it is the **conclusion of a condition contrary to fact.** It is contingent upon a mere supposition.

CHAPTER CXLVII

MODES IN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

548. We have already learned (§ 346) that the Subjunctive Mode represents statements as doubtful, unreal, uncertain, or merely wished for, and not as facts.

The next step in our study of this mode is to consider the nature of **conditional sentences.**

549. A conditional sentence is one that contains a subordinate clause introduced by the conjunction *if*, or some equivalent word; as, "If he were ready, we would go." In this sentence, the clause *we would go* is made to hinge upon the other clause *If he were ready*. The clause *If he were ready* is called the **condition**, and the clause *we would go* is called the **conclusion.**

550. A conditional clause is usually introduced by the conjunction *if*, but the conjunctions *unless* and *except* (= *if not*), *although* or *though* (= *even if*), *provided* (= *if*), are so nearly equivalent to *if* in meaning, that sentences introduced by them usually take the same mode. Clauses introduced by *though*, *although*, and *even if* are called clauses of **concession** (§ 511).

551. There are three kinds of conditional sentences: —

1. **Condition assumed to be a fact.**

The conclusion may be represented as depending upon a condition whose **truth is assumed**, or admitted; as, "If this *is* a free country [it **is** free], you have a right to speak." When a condition is assumed to be true, the verb is in the **indicative** mode.

2. **Condition contrary to fact.**

The conclusion may be represented as depending on a condition which is assumed to be **untrue**; as, "If he *were* here [he is **not** here], he would help you." "If he *had come* [he **did not** come], you would have seen him."

When the condition is assumed to be **untrue**, the verb is in the **subjunctive** mode. The past tense of the subjunctive refers to present time. "If he were here" means "If he were **now** here."

3. **Condition whose truth is doubtful.**

The conclusion may be represented as depending on a condition the truth of which is **uncertain or doubtful.** Neither the truth nor untruth of the supposition is assumed, but the matter is regarded as a present or future uncertainty. We simply **suppose** a case; as, "If the weather *be* pleasant to-morrow [we do not know whether it will be or not], we shall start early."

In conditions expressing a present or future uncertainty the present **subjunctive** is still used by careful writers, though the **indicative** is far more common. The present subjunctive may refer to present or future time.

552. The three kinds of conditions may be stated thus: —

1. If it *is* possible (I assume it *is*), he always comes.
2. If it *were* possible (I assume it *is not*), he would come.
3. If it *be* possible (it *may* or *may not* be), he will come.

Sometimes the *if* is omitted in conditional sentences; as, Were he to inherit a fortune, he would spend it = If he were, etc.

553. The past subjunctive is used after *as if;* as, —

He looks as if he *were* poor (not, *was* poor).

554. The subjunctive is sometimes used after *until*, *before*, etc., to express future uncertainty.

Turn back before it *be* too late.
Let it rise till it *meet* the sun.

EXERCISE 263

Classify and explain the following conditional sentences. Tell the mode and tense of the italicized verbs: —

1. If the man *is* well, he always works.
2. If the man *were* well, he would work.
3. If your journey *be* prosperous, we shall be glad.
4. He will find the knife, if it *is* in the house.
5. He would find the knife if it *were* in the house.
6. He ought to pay the bill if he *owes* it.
7. If he *goes* to school, he learns nothing.
8. Unless you *confess*, you will not be pardoned.
9. If John *were* doing well, I would keep him.
10. If an officer *was resisted*, the soldiers were called out.
11. We should not find fault if a man *has done* his best.
12. If there *is* any such thing as justice, this man will be punished.
13. Though your statement *were* true, it would make no difference.
14. I will not let thee go, except thou *bless* me.
15. Unless he *consent*, we can do nothing.
16. If there *were* mermaids, somebody would see one.
17. If it *be* possible, live peaceably with all men.
18. *Were* he a millionaire, I could not respect him.
19. That man runs as if he *were* trying to escape.
20. He said he would go if the weather *were* pleasant.
21. Though the day *is* cloudy, it is not unpleasant.

EXERCISE 264

Pick out the subjunctives in the following sentences. Decide which subjunctives express (1) a wish, (2) a purpose, (3) a condition contrary to fact, (4) a mere supposition or future uncertainty: —

1. Thy will be done.
2. Green be the turf above thee.
3. It is my desire that George come home immediately.
4. If I had seen the man, I should have told him.
5. If wishes were horses, beggars might ride.
6. He could tell us if he chose.
7. Heaven grant that this never happen again.
8. If a man be lazy, the best discipline for him is poverty.
9. If he had lived till now, he would be ten years old.
10. The sentence is that he be imprisoned.
11. Before the cock crow, thou shalt deny me thrice.
12. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty.
13. If a house be divided against itself, it cannot stand.
14. One blast upon his bugle horn were worth a thousand men.
15. If youth be a defect, it is one that we soon outgrow.
16. Though the ocean roar around me, yet it still shall bear me on.
17. Be it ever so humble, there is no place like home.
18. Thy money perish with thee.
19. Quarrels would not last long if the fault were only on one side.
20. Though this life be short, we can do much to prepare ourselves for the next.
21. Ay — were not man to die,
    He were too mighty for this narrow sphere!
    Had he but time to brood on knowledge here —
    Could he but train his eye —
    Might he but wait the mystic word and hour —
    Only his Maker would transcend his power! — WILLIS.
22. If she be not fair for me
    What care I how fair she be?
23. Judge not that ye be not judged.
24. If it be possible, as much as in you lieth, be at peace with all men.
25. If thy right eye offend thee, pluck it out.

CHAPTER CXLVIII

SUBSTITUTES FOR THE SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

555. Most of the subjunctive forms in Exercise 264 are not verb-phrases, but single words. Such forms are known as the **inflected** subjunctive mode because in a few cases, like the third person singular of the present, the absence of the *s* shows that they are not indicative. This inflected subjunctive is now much less frequently used than formerly. It has been crowded out by the growing use of (*a*) the Indicative Mode, and (*b*) the auxiliaries *may*, *might*, *could*, *should*, and *would*.

If it rain, he will not go. (Old subjunctive.)
If it rains, he will not go. (Indicative.)
If it should rain, he would not go. (Verb-phrase with subjunctive meaning.)

EXERCISE 265

Pick out the subjunctives in the following sentences. Change each sentence to the modern form by inserting an auxiliary before the subjunctive : —

1. Whoever they be, they cannot cross to-night.
2. It is better that he die.
3. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.
4. Strike ere it be too late.
5. Unless he consent, we can do nothing.
6. If thy right hand offend thee, cut it off.
7. Long live the king!
8. If his son ask bread, will he give him a stone?
9. I fear lest he fall.
10. Help me that I perish not.
11. Gather up the fragments that nothing be lost.
12. Pray that he regain his health.
13. It is not best that you do this.
14. My wish is that you go immediately.

CHAPTER CXLIX

THE MODES OF POTENTIAL AUXILIARIES

To the Teacher. — Some grammarians regard these verb-phrases as forming a distinct mode. This plan is defended mainly on the ground of simplicity. When the pupil sees such forms as *could lift* and *might play*, he has only to recognize the potential signs (*could*, *might*) to know that he has an example of the Potential Mode. Those who adopt this method urge the difficulty of determining whether these phrases are used as subjunctives or indicatives.

Others treat these phrases like ordinary verbs, parsing them as subjunctives or indicatives, according to their meaning in given sentences. For example, "*You may go*" means "You are permitted to go." Here *may* is indicative because it states a fact. But in "*May you have* a prosperous voyage" the verb-phrase *may have* has a subjunctive meaning because it expresses a mere wish (§ 346).

As every finite (asserting) form of the verb has a mode, it is plain that if the Potential Mode is to be discarded, pupils should be taught so far as possible, to recognize an indicative or subjunctive meaning in these verb-phrases. It is believed that the following discussion will prove especially helpful in this direction.

INDICATIVE USES

556. General Rule. — **If a potential auxiliary can be changed to an equivalent expression in the indicative mode, the auxiliary may be considered indicative.**

1. **Can** and **must** are always indicative; as, I *can* do it = I *am* able to do it. You *must* start = It *is* necessary that you start.

2. **May** and **might** are indicative when they denote —

(*a*) Permission; as, The teacher says I *may* go = I *am* permitted to go. The teacher said I *might* go = *was* permitted to go.

(*b*) Possibility; as, He *may* miss the train = It *is* possible that he will miss the train. I thought he *might* come = I thought it *was* possible he would come.

3. **Could** is indicative when it stands for *can* —

(*a*) To express simple past time; as, He *could* read when he was three years old = He *was* able to read, etc.

(*b*) In indirect quotations; as, He said he *could* speak French = He said, "I *can* speak French."

4. **Should** is indicative —

(*a*) When it expresses duty or obligation; as, You *should* write more neatly = You *ought* to write more neatly.

(*b*) When it stands for *shall* in indirect quotations; as, I told him I *should* start to-morrow = I told him, "I *shall* start to-morrow."

(*c*) When it is for the past tense in questions or exclamations; as, Who *should* walk in but your brother! = Who *walked* in, etc.

5. **Would** is indicative when it expresses —

(*a*) Determination; as, He *would* have his own way = He *was* determined to have his own way.

(*b*) Customary action; as, He *would* go for days without speaking = He *was* accustomed to go, etc.

(*c*) When it stands for *will* in an indirect quotation; as, He said he *would* do his best = He said, "I *will* do my best."

It will be noticed that in each one of the equivalent sentences given above the verb is in the indicative mode.

SUBJUNCTIVE USES

557. Potential verb-phrases are subjunctive when they express: —

(*a*) A **wish**; as, *May* you *live* long and prosper. O that he *would come!*

(*b*) A **purpose**; as, The farmer sows that he *may reap*. The farmer sowed that he *might reap* (§ 508).

(*c*) A **condition contrary to fact**; as, If I *could help you*, I would (§ 551).

(*d*) The **conclusion of a condition contrary to fact**; as, If he were here, I *would* tell him (§ 547).

(*e*) A **supposition that may or may not be true** (present or future uncertainty); as, If it *should rain*, they will not come = if it *rain*. If the weather *should be* pleasant = if it *be* pleasant. He is no gentleman, whoever he *may be* = whoever he *be* (§ 346).

(*f*) **Should** is sometimes used in noun clauses to express a thought doubtfully and not as a fact. It then takes the place of a present subjunctive; as, It is not right that you *should do* this = that you *do* this. It is a pity that so diligent a man *should fail* = that so diligent a man *fail*.

EXERCISE 266

Find the potential verb-phrases in the following sentences. Explain the meaning of each verb-phrase, and tell whether it has an indicative or a subjunctive meaning: —

1. You should be more careful.
2. May I die if I am not telling the truth.
3. You must take time by the forelock.
4. You cannot eat your cake and have it too.
5. May you have success in your undertaking.
6. You know the train may be late.
7. He should have asked permission.
8. All the rooms may be engaged.
9. May your shadow never grow less.
10. James said he would not offend again.
11. My brother could always run faster than I.
12. We eat that we may live.
13. They wrote that they would come Wednesday.
14. I told them they could easily walk from the station.
15. We should learn to overcome difficulties.

CHAPTER CL

WORDS THAT NEED WATCHING

558. In § 117 it was shown that some words may be used either as prepositions or as adverbs. In § 128 we found that many other words may belong to more than one part of speech. In § 297 we learned that nearly all demonstrative and indefinite words are used either as pronouns or as adjectives. In many ways the important truth that **use determines classification** has been emphasized.

In order to give further illustrations of this truth in a convenient form for reference, the uses of many words likely to give trouble are here explained: —

Above.	*Prep.*	A flag floated above the fort.
	Adv.	Remember what was said above.
	Adj.	Analyze the above sentence (§ 332).
	Noun.	Our blessings come from above (§ 483).
After.	*Prep.*	We left after dinner.
	Adv.	Jill came tumbling after (§ 117).
	Adj.	The after effects were bad (§ 332).
	Conj.	He arrived after I had written (§ 467).
Alike.	*Adj.*	The sisters are much alike.
	Adv.	Treat all alike.
All.	*Adj.*	All children should have exercise.
	Adj. Pro.	All spoke their minds freely (§ 297).
	Adv.	The man is all worn out.
	Noun.	They staked their all on that battle (§ 241).
As.	*Rel. Adv.*	We entered as the bell rang (§ 466).
	Conj.	As he was poor, I helped him.
	Rel. Pro.	She likes the same colors as I do (§ 288).
	Adv.	We walked *as* fast as we could. (The first *as* is an adverb; the second is a conjunction.)

Before.	*Prep.*	He stood before the audience.
	Adv.	I have seen you before.
	Conj.	Look before you leap (§ 467).
Below.	*Prep.*	The temperature was below zero.
	Adv.	Your friend is waiting below.
	Noun.	He came up from below (§ 483).
Both.	*Adj.*	Both shoes need mending.
	Adj. Pro.	Both of us are at fault.
	Conj.	She is both tall and fair (§ 491).
But.	*Conj.*	They tried, but did not succeed.
	Prep.	Everybody but George was present.
	Adv.	It is but right to admit our faults.
	Rel. Pro.	There is no one but knows it (§ 289).
Either.	*Adj.*	Either horse is good enough.
	Adj. Pro.	I do not like either of them.
	Conj.	You must either fish or cut bait (§ 491).
Else.	*Adj.*	Have you seen anybody else? (§ 305.)
	Adv.	How else could he know it?
	Conj.	He is lazy, else I would help him.
Enough.	*Adj.*	We have food enough to last a week.
	Adj. Pro.	We have had enough of that.
	Adv.	Is this coat large enough?
For.	*Prep.*	Send for a physician.
	Conj.	He soon fell asleep, for he was very weary.
However.	*Conj.*	George is slow; however, he is studious.
	Adv.	However stormy it is, he takes a walk.
Like.	*Adj.*	He is much like his father.
	Adv.	She sings like a nightingale (§ 233).
	Noun.	Like cures like.
	Verb.	The boys like history.

NOTE. — Do not use *like* for *as*. Say "Do *as* I do," not "Do *like* I do."

More.	*Adj.*	We shall have more snow.
	Adj. Pro.	Oliver asked for more of the soup.
	Adv.	You are more nice than wise.
Near.	*Adj.*	She was a near and dear friend.
	Adv.	Do not come too near.
	Verb.	The vessels near the land.
Over.	*Prep.*	Amos fell over the chair.
	Adv.	He knocked the chair over.
	Adj.	The rain is over and gone (§ 332).
Round.	*Adj.*	The earth is a round ball.
	Adv.	See the wheels go round.
	Prep.	He was taken round the city.
	Noun.	The evening was a round of pleasure.
	Verb.	Round off the edges.
Since.	*Prep.*	I have not seen him since Monday.
	Conj.	I have not seen him since he left.
	Adv.	I have not seen him since.
So.	*Adv.*	Why are you so angry?
	Conj.	It began to rain, so we did not go.
That.	*Adj.*	What is that noise?
	Adj. Pro.	That is what I was asking.
	Conj.	Keep quiet that we may hear.
	Rel. Pro.	A dog that barks seldom bites.
The.	*Adj.*	The waves break on the shore.
	Adv.	The more I do, the more you complain (§ 513).
What.	*Rel. Pro.*	Take what you want.
	Interrog. Pro.	I asked what he wanted.
	Adj.	What evidence have you?
	Interjec.	What! did he say that?
While.	*Conj.*	Sing while you may.
	Noun.	Sit down and rest a while.
	Verb.	They while away their evenings.

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING

(The following sentences are all from the works of well-known authors. Other suitable selections may be found on pages 328–9, 331–2, 341–2, 345–7, 359–60, 364–5, 378–82.)

1. The soldier stepped from the trenches into the furrow.

2. John Paul Jones, the naval hero of the Revolution, was a Scotchman by birth.

3. He found an old firelock lying by him, the barrel incrusted with rust.

4. Six spears' length from the entrance halted that deep array.

5. On the beach there is a ceaseless activity, winter and summer, night and day.

6. I bring thee tidings of the prince's doom.

7. Oh, my country! preserve the little purity and simplicity of manners you yet possess.

8. While still quite young I had visited Cincinnati, forty-five miles away, several times.

9. His coat sleeves being a great deal too long, and his trousers a great deal too short, he appeared ill at ease in his clothes.

10. Nothing can work me damage except myself.

11. The elevation of the mind ought to be the principal end of all our studies.

12. The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold,
And his cohorts were gleaming with purple and gold.

13. The dreams which nations dream come true.

14. The true university of these days is a collection of books.

15. Learning makes a man fit company for himself.

16. Then came wandering by a shadow, like an angel.

17. I left the lodging the very same hour, and this turned out a very fortunate occurrence for me.

18. He had the two essential parts of a courtier, pride and ignorance.

19. I have said that Ireland is a country of many wrongs and of many sorrows.

20. He that loveth a book will never want a faithful friend.

21. We returned to the place where the smack had anchored.

22. They pronounced him one of the best fellows in the world.

23. We believed that it was more important to capture Philadelphia than to get control of the Hudson.

24. When Death, the great Reconciler, has come, it is never our tenderness that we repent of, but our severity.

25. What your heart thinks great, is great.

26. As I was saying, we have come to a land whereof the old world has scarcely heard.

27. We shall be judged not by what we might have been but by what we have been.

28. A great man scarcely knows how he dines, how he dresses.

29. Newton was made a member of Parliament, and was knighted by the king.

30. Great men exist that there may be greater men.

31. Another remarkable peculiarity of our friend was that he seemed to have no illusions.

32. He breathed a wish that he might see his wife before he died.

33. The farmer imagines power and place are fine things.

34. Three centuries before the Christian era, Aristotle had proved that the earth is a round ball.

35. His illness had so increased that he had taken to his hammock.

36. He wore his hat a little on one side.

37. He wants to be made captain that he may be called captain.

38. Ah, one to-day is worth for me a thousand yesterdays.

39. Money being what I chiefly wanted, I wrote to a woman of high rank requesting that she would lend me five guineas.

40. I was reminded of those days when I had known neither care nor sorrow.

41. At length he reached to where the ravine had opened.

42. I could not sleep, though I often tried to, when I got on such a hunt after an idea, until I had caught it.

43. I could not but consider the library a literary catacomb.

44. The moment the dance was over, he caught up the guitar.

45. He (Gladstone) was too proud to indulge in the "I told you so" of smaller men.

46. It seemed miraculous that she regained her balance.

47. Congress could not enlist a soldier or build a fort, because it had no power to levy taxes.

48. Who can tell, when he sets forth to wander, whither he may be driven by the uncertain currents of existence, or when he may return?

49. To have once acted nobly seems a reason why we should always be noble.

50. I love to lose myself in other men's minds.

51. At Athens a boy learned to speak well; at Sparta, to do well.

52. To have taken the field openly against his rival would have been madness.

53. I would never choose to withdraw myself from the labor and common burden of the world.

54. To add brightness to the sun or glory to the name of Washington is alike impossible.

55. It is better to be an hour too soon than a minute too late.

56. One of those heavy fogs rendered it impossible for us to see far ahead.

57. I was just about to launch forth into eulogiums upon the poets of the day, when the sudden opening of the door caused me to turn my head.

58. Such a one do I remember, whom to look at was to love.

59. To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge.

60. The British plan of campaign in 1777 was to capture Philadelphia and isolate New England.

61. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen.

62. I was curious to see how he manufactured his wares.

63. To arrest the rush of our youth to our cities, we have only to diffuse what is best of the cities through the country.

64. Captain Smith seems to have been the best man to control the unruly settlers.

65. Ichabod's only resource on such occasions was to sing psalm tunes, either to drown thought or to drive away evil spirits.

66. Washington was too wary to allow himself to be caught napping.

67. I drew aside the curtain to hear them more distinctly.

68. Education is to make people do their best.

69. Among the assailants were a number of Hurons, adopted by the Iroquois, and fighting on their side.

70. There was a whisper, also, about securing the gun, and keeping the old fellow from doing mischief.

71. Washington hoped to save Philadelphia from falling into the hands of the British.

72. It came to pass that a pestilence fell on the city.

73. If I am not worth the wooing, I surely am not worth the winning.

74. The delegates spent six weeks in visiting the cities.

75. He (Shakespeare) has become one of ourselves, holding his own place in the history of our literature, applauded in our theaters, read in our cottages, studied, known, loved, as far as sounds the German tongue.

76. The preparation had made me feel a little impatient.

77. Presently he saw enter through the sunlit doorway a person of another class.

78. I heard the woods and distant waters roar.

79. Must we in all things look for the how and the why and the wherefore?

80. A man's first care should be to avoid the reproaches of his own heart.

81. He would carry a fowling piece on his shoulder for hours together.

82. He had thought himself acquainted with every one.

83. Some of them could not refrain from tears at the sight of their old master.

84. Howe'er it be, it seems to me,
'Tis only noble to be good.

85. The love of peace which James professed would have been respectable if it had proceeded from tenderness for his people.

86. Forgive me, if the lay be such
As may not suit thy hours of gladness.

87. I am afraid to think what I have done.

88. It was the verger, who came to inform me that it was time to close the library.

89. He felt the cheering power of spring;
It made him whistle, it made him sing.

90. The breezy call of incense-breathing morn,
The swallow twittering from the straw-built shed,
The cock's shrill clarion, or the echoing horn,
No more shall rouse them from their lowly bed.

91. The snow had begun in the gloaming,
And busily all the night
Had been heaping field and highway
With a silence deep and white.

A Cotton Field

92. To the remotest point of sight,
Although I gaze upon no waste of snow,
The endless field is white;
And the whole landscape glows,
For many a shining league away,
With such accumulated light
As Polar lands would flash beneath a tropic day!

A Wheat Field

93. When the lids of the virgin Dawn unclose,
When the earth is fair and the heavens are calm,
And the early breath of the wakening rose
Floats on the air in balm,
I stand breast-high in the pearly wheat
That ripples and thrills to a sportive breeze,
Borne over the field with its Hermes feet,
And its subtle odor of southern seas;
While out of the infinite azure deep
The flashing wings of the swallows sweep,
Buoyant and beautiful, wild and fleet,
Over the waves of the whispering wheat.

PART III

COMPOSITION

I. INTRODUCTION

1. Composition may be either **oral** or **written.** Any expression of thought is composition. To compose is to put one's thoughts together. Whenever we talk, whether at home or at school, or on the playground; whenever we ask a question, or express our wants, or tell what we have seen or done, or explain an example in arithmetic, we are composing.

Oral composition should always come before written. We should be able to talk our thoughts before we attempt to write them.

If we can talk correctly, we shall write correctly. For these reasons we ought to be just as careful how we talk as how we write.

2. In learning to write good English, young people naturally pass through four stages: —

(1) They learn to attend to the **outward execution,** — the details of spelling, capitalization, and punctuation, which appeal mainly to the eye.

(2) They master the **correct expression** of thought, which is really a practical application of the principles of grammar.

(3) They come to see that persons may express thought grammatically, and yet with very little force or grace, and they learn to **write effectively.** This result depends largely

on the form and arrangement of thought, and has to do with the part of rhetoric called Style.

(4) Finally, they discover that in order to become real writers they must acquire the ability to **originate thought**, to work out for themselves the material they use. This process is called Invention. The first two parts are easily learned by practice, and hence should be emphasized during the earlier stages of composition writing; the last two are more difficult, and special attention should be given to them by more advanced pupils.

These four steps are mentioned in the order in which they are most naturally developed. Trained writers use only the last process, — that of invention, — the others being employed almost unconsciously; but young people writing for practice should perfect themselves in the easier parts first, at the same time making as much progress as possible in thinking for themselves and improving the form and arrangement of their thoughts.

To the Teacher. — It is not intended that the whole of each general topic in Part III should be completed before another topic is taken up. Each class or grade should be given such portions of any or all subdivisions of composition as will be likely to prove most profitable for that class. For example, the exercises in Synonyms should be given at intervals and not continuously.

II. SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS

3. One secret of success in composition is to have a good store of suitable words ready for use. When a person is able to use only a very limited number of words, what he says and what he writes lacks variety, force, and interest. A good writer is never tied down to a single word with which to express an idea. To give variety to composition we need to extend our supply of words.

Words that have the same, or nearly the same, meaning are called *synonyms*.

Words that have opposite, or nearly opposite, meanings are called *antonyms*.

To the Teacher. — In the following exercises the pupil should consult the dictionary for the exact meaning of the words, and then use the words in short sentences.

(1) Find among the following nouns those that have nearly the same meaning and write them in separate columns: —

pleasure	bravery	enjoyment	sample
consent	specimen	permission	courage

(2) Study the following nouns and place those that have nearly the same meaning in columns by themselves: —

home	clothes	helper	plan
scheme	ally	dress	dwelling
abode	garb	assistant	contrivance
design	colleague	apparel	habitation

(3) Find the synonyms in the following lists of nouns and arrange them in four columns: —

kindness	battle	success	gentleness
victory	triumph	brutality	cruelty
struggle	affection	ferocity	conflict

(4) From the following nouns pick out pairs of words that have opposite meanings: —

Example: friend — enemy.

friend	poverty	darkness	buyer
riches	morning	seller	cruelty
winner	enemy	evening	loser
kindness	silence	noise	light

(5) For each of the following nouns think of a noun with an opposite meaning: —

EXAMPLE: success — failure.

success	falsehood	love	beginning
misery	knowledge	health	gain
innocence	victory	need	prosperity
increase	praise	hope	joy

(6) Pick out the synonyms among these adjectives and arrange them in three columns: —

still	vast	placid	distinguished
enormous	calm	famous	tranquil
huge	renowned	celebrated	immense

(7) Use each of the above adjectives with a suitable noun; as, *still water*, *a famous city*.

(8) Study the following adjectives, and arrange the synonyms in five groups: —

expensive	jubilant	horrible	joyous
cunning	costly	dear	artful
forlorn	fearful	delightful	wretched
sly	happy	crafty	high-priced
terrible	desolate	miserable	awful

(9) Group the synonyms: —

sure	accurate	cowardly	ingenious
hazardous	dangerous	brave	fearless
safe	fearful	expert	daring
correct	exact	risky	precise
timid	secure	courageous	perilous
skillful	faint-hearted	clever	certain

(10) From the following adjectives pick out pairs of words that have opposite meanings: —

bright	polite	merry	beautiful
lazy	dull	rude	well-bred
busy	vulgar	present	industrious
idle	absent	ugly	sad

(11) Think of an antonym for each of the following adjectives: —

genuine	sincere	gloomy	coarse
natural	flimsy	laughable	awkward
modern	fertile	timid	fictitious
imaginary	counterfeit	hostile	transparent

(12) Study the following verbs and place the synonyms in groups: —

injure	answer	maintain	try
affirm	harm	rejoin	declare
endeavor	mar	damage	respond
reply	strive	assert	attempt

(13) Find the synonyms among these verbs and arrange them as in former exercises: —

work	dwell	decrease	labor
reside	stay	cheat	toil
deceive	lessen	conquer	vanquish
diminish	mislead	overcome	

(14) Find the synonyms among these verbs: —

ascend	help	ask	hinder
interrupt	mount	soar	request
assist	obstruct	climb	aid
beseech	pray	support	impede

4. Consult a dictionary for the exact meaning of each of the following synonyms, and then try to use the word in a sentence in which the other synonym would not be so apt: —

1. like	love	6. narration	description
2. praise	applause	7. specimen	sample
3. healthy	healthful	8. think	guess
4. stop	stay	9. old	ancient
5. bold	courageous	10. less	fewer

11.	excuse	pardon	21.	awkward	clumsy
12.	habit	custom	22.	mistake	blunder
13.	sad	awful	23.	crime	fault
14.	terrible	horrible	24.	peaceable	peaceful
15.	forsake	desert	25.	common	mutual
16.	empty	vacant	26.	emigrate	immigrate
17.	hasten	hurry	27.	ability	capacity
18.	busy	industrious	28.	famous	illustrious
19.	balance	remainder	29.	eminent	celebrated
20.	thief	robber	30.	misfortune	mishap

III. WORD BUILDING

5. Another means of increasing our vocabulary is found in studying the formation of words. The thousands of words in the English language are not all separate and distinct in their origin and meaning, but a large majority of them are formed from other words. For example, the adjective *skillful* is formed from the noun *skill* by placing after it the syllable *ful*, meaning *full of*, or *having*. *Skillful*, then, means *full of skill*, or *having skill*. Now we can place before the word *skillful*, the syllable *un*, meaning *not*, giving us the adjective *unskillful*, which means *not skillful*. An unskillful man is a man who is not skillful.

In the same way from the adjective *kind* we can form the words *kindness*, *unkind*, *unkindness*, *kindly*, *unkindly*, etc. It is evident that if we know how to form several words from one word in this way, we have a means of rapidly increasing our store.

A letter, syllable, or word joined to the beginning of a word to modify its meaning is called a *prefix*.

A letter, syllable, or word joined to the end of a word to modify its meaning is called a *suffix*.

In the word *unskillful*, the syllable *un* is a prefix, and *ful* is a suffix.

6. The more common **prefixes** are as follows :—

(1) **Un** before an adjective means *not.* Join the prefix **un** to these adjectives, and notice the change in meaning:—

happy	ripe	usual	steady	pleasant
real	true	lucky	healthy	equal
wise	kind	holy	likely	lawful

Use each of the new adjectives in a short sentence ; as, *The story is untrue.* Find in your reader ten adjectives beginning with **un.**

To the Teacher. — Pupils should be given practice on each prefix and suffix (1) by means of the words that follow; (2) by using each new word in a sentence ; (3) by finding similar uses of the given prefix or suffix in their reading lessons.

(2) **Un** before verbs means *back* or *in the opposite way ;* as, *furl* = to fold or roll up ; *unfurl* = to open or roll out.

hitch	load	harness	tie	loose
roll	fasten	cover	hinge	veil
sheath	furl	twist	tangle	bolt

(3) **A** = *on, in, at ;* as, *aboard* = on board.

fire foot ground bed head side

(4) **Out** = *beyond, more than ;* as, *outbid* = bid more than others.

do grow rival number play ride run

(5) **Over** = *above,* or *too much ;* as, *oversleep* = to sleep too long.

arch	flow	burden	cast	draw
grow	hang	lap	load	run
spread	value	work	look	do

(6) **Mis** = *doing the thing wrongly, making an error in doing it;* as, *misbehave* = behave wrongly.

inform	take	spell	place	manage
understand	lay	direct	quote	pronounce
judge	print	guide	lead	represent

(7) **Dis** = *not*, or *the opposite of;* as, *disagree* = not to agree, to quarrel.

agree	obey	approve	own	mount
appear	connect	arrange	band	claim
please	honor	like	continue	close

(8) **In, im, il, ir** = *not.* Any one of these prefixes placed before an adjective makes a new adjective having an opposite meaning; as, *inactive* = not active. All these prefixes are different forms of the one prefix **in**: —

capable	perfect	competent	patient	distinct
mortal	liberal	visible	movable	modest
dependent	prudent	regular	legible	famous

7. The uses of **suffixes** are illustrated below: —

(1) Form an adjective from each of the following nouns by adding the suffix **less** = *without*, or by adding **ful** = *full of, causing.* In adding the suffix, change final *y* to *i*.

pain	mercy	awe	cheer	care
noise	dread	pity	will	fear
spite	wing	home	hope	thought
doubt	sin	child	power	worth

(2) Form an adjective from each of these nouns by adding the suffix **y** = *full of, having*, etc.; as, *dusty* = full of dust; *wealthy* = having wealth; *dewy* = covered with dew.

In adding a suffix beginning with a vowel, final *e* is usually dropped; as, *craze, crazy; come, coming.*

Words of one syllable ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant in adding a suffix beginning with a vowel; as, *fog, foggy.*

smoke	juice	health	shade	grease
noise	gloss	chill	ice	haste
rock	rose	air	thirst	brine
craze	hill	fog	slop	rain

(3) Form an adjective from each of the following nouns by adding the suffix **ous**, meaning *full of*, *having*, or *causing*.

In adding the suffix **ous**:—

Change final *y* to *i*; as, *mystery, mysterious.*
Change final *f* to *v*; as, *grief, grievous.*
An *e* before final *r* is often dropped; as, *wonder, wondrous.*
If the word ends in *t* or *ty*, it takes *e*; as, *pity, piteous.*

advantage	wonder	vigor	court	ruin
melody	courage	marvel	study	mischief
monster	beauty	plenty	right	industry
fury	victory	luxury	envy	glory

(4) Most words ending in **ly** are adverbs. But some adjectives also have this ending, and as they look like adverbs, they need special attention. Most adjectives ending in **ly** are formed from nouns. The ending **ly** means *like;* as, *man-ly* = man-like, or like a man.

lord	court	neighbor	brother	prince
soldier	scholar	knight	gentleman	rascal
beast	father	coward	beggar	priest

(5) **Ic, ical** = *of, relating to, like.*

angel	hero	metal	ocean
poet	history	geography	pirate

(6) **Ish** = *somewhat, relating to, like.*

blue	sweet	child	rogue	fool
boy	Spain	wasp	fop	style

(7) The suffixes **able, ible, ble** added to verbs form adjectives, meaning *can be, worthy of.*

attain	discern	inhabit	till	vary
teach	bear	excuse	regret	tax
punish	respect	pass	move	transfer

(8) **Ity, ty** = *state* or *condition;* as, *fertility* = condition of being fertile.

pure	loyal	mature	novel	popular
docile	fertile	generous	hostile	sublime
divine	timid	extreme	scarce	infirm

For spelling, see Exercise 114.

(9) **Ness** = *quality* or *state.*

base	bold	cool	faithful	fond
holy	bright	steep	glad	greedy
happy	idle	weary	worthless	willing

See also Exercise 114.

(10) **Ship, dom, hood** = *state* or *condition;* as, *friendship* = the state of being friends.

friend	child	town	fellow	hardy
free	likely	king	wise	man
clerk	horseman	widow	knight	duke

(11) **Or, er, ar** = *the person who does the act denoted by the verb;* as, *collector* = a person who collects; *trader* = a person who trades.

act	sail	visit	give	instruct
learn	conquer	beg	idle	teach
govern	rule	supervise	write	oppress

IV. VARIETY OF EXPRESSION

8. Exercises like the following serve several useful purposes. They emphasize the difference between phrases and clauses, and show that many phrases can be expanded into clauses and many clauses contracted into phrases. They show that the **form** of a sentence can often be changed without changing the **meaning**. Above all, they teach variety of expression in writing English.

Combine in two or more ways these groups of sentences. Tell whether each new sentence is simple, compound, or complex : —

EXAMPLE : John has a good position. He is happy.

These two sentences may be combined in several different ways : —

(*a*) John has a good position and is happy.
(*b*) John is happy because he has a good position.
(*c*) John, who has a good position, is happy.
(*d*) John, having secured a good position, is happy.

1. California has a mild climate. It produces many oranges.
2. Jackson had very little schooling. He became President.
3. Queen Victoria died in 1901. The Prince of Wales then became King.
4. In a certain country there once lived a king and queen. They grieved sorely. They had no child.
5. A fox once met a lion. He had never seen a lion before. The fox was frightened. He almost died.
6. Dick packed his bundle. This was at night. The next morning he left home. He started early.
7. The city of Savannah contains many stately homes. The homes were erected by merchants and planters. They were wealthy.
8. Texas is the largest state in the Union. It is four times as large as New England. It is larger than France. It is larger than Germany.
9. London is the largest city in the world. It is also the richest. It contains nearly five millions of people. This is more than the combined kingdoms of Denmark and Greece contain.

9. Substitute phrases for the italicized words in the following sentences: —

1. The wind blew *furiously*. 2. The woman looked *scornfully* at the judge. 3. The children *silently* left the room. 4. The workmen marched *bodily* to a hall. 5. He was *publicly* denounced. 6. They opened the *chamber* windows. 7. We could see a *distant* mountain. 8. A *white-haired* man sat at the head of the table. 9. *Childish* griefs are soon forgotten. 10. Mr. Wood is an *influential* man. 11. You have made a *very valuable* discovery.

10. Without changing the meaning, substitute clauses for the italicized words in the following sentences: —

1. The general demanded *the release of the prisoners*. 2. I pity *the toilers in the mills*. 3. Some people never show *their anger*. 4. The travelers started *before sunrise*. 5. The *mill people* are enjoying a holiday. 6. That man shows *great interest* in his work. 7. The house posted a notice *of a reduction in wages*. 8. They forgot *their hunger* and *weariness*. 9. I met a few *acquaintances*. 10. I saw *the possibility* of a terrible accident. 11. The girl was conscious of *her good looks*. 12. *His poverty* was evident in his dress. 13. I rejoice *in your success*. 14. *Evidently* the house was well cared for. 15. Any *passer-by* could have heard him.

11. The "and" habit. — A common error of beginners is the frequent use of the conjunction *and*. Sentences like the following are common in school compositions: —

A troop of strange children ran at his heels, and hooted after him and pointed at his gray beard.

But this is the sentence as Irving wrote it: —

A troop of strange children ran at his heels, hooting after him and pointing at his gray beard.

12. Improve the following sentences by changing one or more of the verbs to a participle, thus getting rid of an *and*: —

1. The dog ran backward and forward, and whined and wagged his tail.

2. The salesman looked at the boy and laughed, and thought he had only a few mackerel to sell.

3. They clambered up the steep, and caught hold of bushes and angles of the rocks, and at last stood safe upon the plains above.

4. The soldier walked up and down his beat and trod a path in the snow, and longed for the time when he would be dismissed.

5. The townsmen went home and sat and talked with their wives and children about what had happened.

6. The soldiers marched across the street and forced their way through the crowd, and pricked the people with their bayonets.

7. The elephant took the child up with his trunk and placed it on his back, and would never afterward obey any other master.

8. The lion rose up and shook himself in great wrath, and searched every corner of his den, and finally discovered the mouse.

13. The "then" habit. — The "then" habit is almost as prevalent as the "and" habit. Following is an example: —

The horseman found himself in a wild ravine. His horse stumbled and fell. Then he walked on till he reached a lake. Then he blew his horn. Then a little skiff shot out from the opposite shore, etc.

In the above sentences each "then" may be dispensed with by changing some of the verbs to participles, or by using a different introductory word, as *after*.

14. Change each adjective phrase to a relative clause: —

1. A man without industry is not likely to succeed.
2. He said nothing of interest to me.
3. Men with great sorrows seldom seem sad.
4. The road between the hills is steep and narrow.
5. Holland is a nation of pluck and perseverance.
6. A man in pursuit of greatness feels no little wants.
7. Science does not know its debt to imagination.
8. A man without a smiling face should not open a shop.
9. The convent windows toward the street were closed.
10. We drank thankfully from this well by the wayside.
11. The iron of Sweden is considered superior to any other.

12. The most important crop of the South is cotton.
13. The quarrel between the two men lasted many years.
14. Much of the bread used in Europe is made of wheat from America.
15. Have you any good book for me to read?

15. Change each infinitive phrase to a clause: —

1. Every man should have a trade to follow.
2. The children wished the summer to return.
3. There was nothing for me to do but return home.
4. I was disappointed not to see you.
5. To hear him talk you would think him brave.
6. I had seed enough to sow an acre of ground.
7. Elephants sometimes live to be a hundred years old.
8. The Indians were too frightened to return.
9. I was pleased to find my boy doing well.
10. Nature designed us to be of good cheer.
11. There is no fun to be compared with skating.
12. The listener held his breath to hear.
13. I decided to shoot the fox on sight.
14. Students are foolish to study late at night.
15. It is not right for one man to rob another.

16. Make a simple sentence of each of these groups by changing one or more of the statements in each group to a phrase (prepositional, participial, or infinitive).

1. His schoolhouse was a low building. It had one large room. It was rudely constructed of logs.

2. The schoolhouse stood in a lonely situation. The situation was pleasant. It was just at the foot of a hill. The hill was woody. A brook was running close by.

3. He came clattering up to the school door. He brought an invitation to Ichabod. It was an invitation to attend a merry-making. This was to be held at Van Tassel's.

4. He beheld great fields of Indian corn. Its golden ears were peeping from their leafy coverts. It held out the promise of cakes and hasty pudding.

5. He was broad shouldered. He was double jointed. He had short curly hair. He had a bluff countenance. His countenance was not unpleasant.

17. Form one sentence of each of the following groups of statements. Classify each sentence you form.

1. A Connecticut farmer took me out under his porch. It was one April day. He showed me a bird's nest. It was six stories high.

2. The owl lighted on top of the oriole's nest. He thrust his claws down. He thrust them into the long pocket. He seized the young. He drew them forth.

3. A large tree had blown over. This was at the edge of the water. Its upturned roots formed a wall. The wall was several feet high.

4. I loaded a big shot gun. I crept up under the tree. I rested the gun on the fence. The muzzle was not more than ten feet from the bird. I shut both eyes. I pulled the trigger.

5. For a quarter of an hour the doe went on. She went at a slapping pace. She cleared the bushes. She flew over the fallen logs. She paused not for brook. She paused not for ravine.

18. Make one complex sentence of each of the following groups of sentences: —

1. There was a deep ravine between two mountains. Through the ravine flowed a stream white with foam.

2. Back of the garden was a green hedge. Beyond the hedge lay fields and meadows.

3. Aladdin secured the treasure. He stopped to admire the trees. The trees were loaded with fruits. The fruits were of many colors.

4. The provisions were all gone. Aladdin sold the plates one by one. He sold them for the support of himself and his mother.

5. It was toward evening. Ichabod arrived at the castle. It was the castle of Herr Van Tassel. He found it thronged. It was thronged with the pride and flower of the neighborhood.

19. Summary. — Following is a summary of the more important changes in construction by which variety may

be secured. When you wish to improve a sentence, consider which of the following forms of expression will best suit your purpose: —

1. The natural or transposed order of subject and predicate (pp. 7–9).
2. A declarative, interrogative, or exclamatory sentence (pp. 12–13).
3. An adjective, adjective phrase, or adjective clause (pp. 67–8, 86–7, 89–91, 323–8).
4. An adverb, adverbial phrase, or adverbial clause (pp. 67–8, 87, 93–4).
5. The active or passive voice (pp. 185–7).
6. An infinitive, a gerund, or a clause (pp. 205, 290–2, 326).
7. A noun or a noun clause (pp. 96–7).
8. A participle or a clause (pp. 207–8, 280–1, 324).
9. A nominative absolute or a clause (pp. 281–3).
10. A separate sentence or a clause (pp. 157–8, 327).

V. THE PARAGRAPH

20. Read the following selection. Notice that it is divided into six parts, or *paragraphs*. Notice that this division is shown by indentation; that is, by beginning the first line of each paragraph a little farther to the right of the margin than the other lines.

The Bird's Home

Each mother bird has her own way of making the nest, but there is one thing almost all of them try to do, and that is to hide it. They cannot put their little homes out in plain sight, as we do our houses, because so many creatures want to rob them. Squirrels and snakes and rats, and some big birds, and cats and many others, like to eat eggs and young birds.

So most birds try, first of all, to find good hiding places. Some tiny warblers go to the tops of the tallest trees and hide the nest among the leaves. Orioles hang the swinging cradle at the end of a

branch, where cats and snakes and naughty boys cannot come. Song sparrows tuck the little home in a tuft of weeds on the ground, and bobolinks hide it in the deep grass.

After a safe place is found, they have to get something to build of. They hunt all about and gather small twigs, or grass stems, or fine rootlets, and pull narrow strips of bark off the grapevines and birch trees, or they pick up strings and horsehairs, and many other things. Robins and swallows use mud.

As they go on building, the mother bird gets inside and turns around and around to make it fit her form, and be smooth and comfortable for her to sit in.

When a nest is made, it must be lined. Then some birds go to the chicken yard, and pick up feathers, and others find horsehairs. Some of them pull off the soft down that grows on plants, or get bits of wool from the sheep pasture, or old leaves from the woods, and make it soft and warm inside.

Some bird homes are only platforms, where it seems as if the eggs must roll off, and others are deep burrows or holes in the ground where no one can get in. Some are dainty baskets hung between two twigs, and others are tiny cups of felt with lichens outside. There are as many different ways as there are kinds of birds to make them. — Olive Thorne Miller.

21. Study the selection and decide what it is about. Notice that the various thoughts relate to nest building *only*. Now examine the paragraphs one by one, and observe that each gives some particular fact about the subject. Thus each has a subject of its own, which is a key to its contents. All of these parts are necessary to give a complete idea of nest building. We also notice that there is an orderly arrangement of the paragraphs; the selection of the place, the materials, the building, the lining, the different kinds of nests.

Next, let us test each paragraph to see whether it deals with only one subject or topic. If we can express the essential thought in a single sentence, we may conclude that it develops only **one topic**, and is, therefore, a **unit of thought.**

Paragraph 1. *Bird mothers try to hide their nests from their enemies.*

Paragraph 2. *Different birds have different ways of hiding their nests.*

Paragraph 3. *They use various materials in building their nests.*

Paragraph 4. *The mother shapes the nest to fit her body.*

Paragraph 5. *The nest is lined to make it soft and warm.*

Paragraph 6. *Each bird builds in its own way.*

22. Summary. — From this study we learn —

1. A composition should be a **unit** or treat of **one subject** only.

2. A paragraph should tell about **one topic** only.

3. The first line of a paragraph should be written a little farther to the right of the margin than the others, to show where a new topic begins. This is called **indentation.**

4. **A paragraph is a series of sentences relating to one topic.**

VI. THE TOPIC SENTENCE

23. Read the selection on "The Bird's Home" by paragraphs and give answers to the following questions: —

In which sentence is the topic expressed in the first paragraph? In the second paragraph? In the third? In the fourth? In the fifth? In the sixth? Read these sentences in the order of their occurrence. Observe that they tell you briefly what the selection contains.

The sentence that contains the topic of a paragraph is called the **topic sentence.** It helps the writer to "stick to his subject," and shows the reader what the paragraph is about.

Notice the position of the topic sentence. In which paragraphs is it placed first? Where is it placed in paragraph 6?

The topic sentence is usually the first sentence in a paragraph. It may, however, come last, or after one or more introductory sentences. Sometimes the topic is not definitely stated in any sentence, but may easily be inferred from the whole paragraph, and be put in a short sentence as a title.

24. In the following paragraphs select the topic sentence. Notice how each sentence helps to develop the central thought of the paragraph.

ADVANTAGES OF A TENT

Men may say what they will in praise of their houses and grow eloquent upon the merits of various styles of architecture, but, for our part, we are agreed that there is nothing to be compared with a tent. It is the most venerable and aristocratic form of human habitation. Abraham and Sarah lived in it, and shared its hospitality with angels. It is exempt from the base tyranny of the plumber, the paper hanger, and the gas man. It is not immovably bound to one dull spot of earth by the chains of a cellar and a system of water pipes. It has a noble freedom of locomotion. It follows the wishes of its inhabitants, and goes with them, a traveling home, as the spirit moves them to explore the wilderness. At their pleasure new beds of wild flowers surround it, new plantations of trees overshadow it, and new avenues of shining water lead to its ever open door. What the tent lacks in luxury it makes up in liberty; or rather let us say, that liberty itself is the greatest luxury. — VAN DYKE, "Little Rivers."

THE APPLE

The apple is the commonest and yet the most varied and beautiful of fruits. A dish of them is as becoming to the center table in winter as was the vase of flowers in the summer, — a bouquet of Spitzenbergs and greenings and northern spies. A rose when it blooms, the apple is a rose when it ripens. It pleases every sense to which it can be addressed, the touch, the smell, the sight, the taste; and when it falls in the still October days, it pleases the ear. It is a call to a banquet, it is a signal that the feast is ready. The bough would fain hold it, but it can now assert its independence; it can now live a life of its own. — JOHN BURROUGHS.

Narcissa

It was a pretty picture Narcissa made, sitting in the doorway, leaning against the doorpost. Her hair was nearly black, with no gloss or sparkle, only a soft, dusky cloudiness. It curled in little rings about her broad, low forehead, and round her soft, pale cheeks. Her eyes were dusky, too, but more gray than brown, and the only vivid color was in the scarlet line of her lips. There was nothing unhealthy in her clear pallor, no hint of sallowness, but a soft white glow. The nostrils of her little straight nose were cut high, which gave them a look of being always slightly dilated; this caused the neighbors to say that Narcissa White was proud, though nobody knew what she had to be proud of. As for her dress, it was of blue jean, a good deal faded, but all the better for that; and her white apron, though coarse, was spotless and carefully starched. — Laura E. Richards.

25. Find other prose selections in this book and also in your readers. Study the paragraphs and try to give the subject of each. Select the topic sentence in each.

26. Sometimes a paragraph consists of a single sentence, as in paragraph 4, "The Bird's Home"; but it generally consists of several sentences.

A paragraph may be a whole composition in itself. In a paragraph of this kind care must be taken to select only those points that are absolutely necessary to develop the topic.

27. The following selection is a whole composition consisting of only one paragraph.

The Dog and the Shadow

One day a dog was carrying home a piece of meat in his mouth. On his way he had to cross a plank lying across a smooth brook. By chance he looked into the brook, and saw there what he took to be another dog with another piece of meat. He made up his mind to have that also, and snapped at the shadow in the water, but when he opened his jaws, the piece of meat which he had in his mouth fell out and sank into the brook.

What was the result of the dog's trying to get more than he already had? What does this fable teach? See how well you can tell the story. Write it without using the book, and then compare your story with the original.

VII. DEVELOPING PARAGRAPHS

28. As the central thought of the paragraph is contained in the topic sentence, so it follows that the topic sentence may be developed, or expanded, into a paragraph.

1. The topic sentence is often such that it naturally calls for particulars or details. (See paragraph 3, "The Bird's Home"; also "Narcissa," p. 332.)

2. Some topic sentences call for illustrations, examples, or instances. (See paragraphs 2 and 5, "The Bird's Home"; also "The Apple," p. 331.)

3. Other topic sentences lead us to expect reasons or proofs. (See paragraph 1, "The Bird's Home"; also "Advantages of a Tent," p. 331.)

29. Find in your reader, history, or geography, paragraphs of each of the kinds mentioned above.

30. Expand the following topic sentences into paragraphs by giving particulars or details: —

1. It was a beautiful day in June.
2. The young man was oddly dressed.
3. It was an old-fashioned house.
4. The previous day had been one of excitement.
5. The cause of all this commotion was soon explained.
6. I have had an unusually busy afternoon.
7. I recently visited a very interesting building.
8. I shall never forget a day I spent in the country.
9. One night Esther had a remarkable dream.
10. There was only one passenger besides myself in the stage-coach.
11. Yesterday I witnessed a most exciting runaway.

12. This morning I saw an amusing occurrence.
13. It was a country school of the olden time.
14. The room contained an old cabinet full of curiosities and knick-knacks.
15. In Boston we saw many places of historic interest.

31. Expand the following topic sentences into paragraphs by giving illustrations, examples, or instances : —

1. Some dogs show great intelligence.
2. Many wild animals are found in North America.
3. There are several plants or trees from whose sap sugar is made.
4. The ocean is the source of all the water upon the surface of the land.
5. The earth has two constant motions.
6. Columbus was treated with great injustice.
7. The first white men to explore the Mississippi River were Frenchmen.
8. Franklin was always trying experiments.
9. Some crops grow best on wet land.
10. The products of Texas are important and valuable.
11. The bravest are the tenderest.
12. It is better to bend than to break.
13. Cities grow up where there is a good harbor, or good water power for manufacturing.
14. Trolley lines are of great advantage to the farmer.
15. Spring is the season of house cleaning.

32. Develop the following topic sentences by giving reasons or proofs : —

1. Football is a more dangerous game than baseball.
2. Summer is a pleasanter season than winter.
3. Every school should have a debating society.
4. Arithmetic is a more useful study than geography.
5. The shape of the earth is nearly that of a ball.
6. The teacher's desk was always an object of interest to me.
7. The Panama Canal will greatly benefit the Gulf States.
8. Health is of greater importance than wealth.
9. Monthly tests are more useful than term examinations.

10. Daniel Boone was a true pioneer.
11. How true is the old saying, "A stitch in time saves nine."
12. Every school ought to have a good playground.
13. A republic is better for the people than a monarchy.
14. Prevention is better than cure.
15. The capture of Quebec was an important event.
16. Labor unions are beneficial to their members.

33. Write a paragraph about each of the following subjects or topics, introducing a topic sentence in each: —

1. The battle of Lexington. 2. How I put up a swing. 3. My kitten at play. 4. A heroic deed. 5. An interesting boy in my class. 6. My window garden. 7. How I made my first kite. 8. A view from my window. 9. An apple tree in blossom. 10. Value of a good memory. 11. A snowstorm. 12. My favorite poem. 13. A beautiful sunset. 14. Sitting for a picture. 15. A broken umbrella.

34. Divide the following selection into three paragraphs: —

Washington's school education was very limited. He was taught only a few of the things that boys now study; but what he did learn he learned thoroughly and well. There were but few books which he could find to read; but those few he read attentively, so that he understood them perfectly. He was well instructed in writing and arithmetic, and had a natural faculty for both. Many of the copy books which he used when a boy are still in existence. They are all very neatly kept. Some contain the rules of arithmetic and the most difficult sums under them, all written out in full; another has a whole course of bookkeeping; another has copies of the notes, receipts, and other papers used by lawyers and merchants; and in another several pieces of poetry are written. In one of these books are several pages containing what he calls rules of behavior in company and conversation. They were written out by Washington when he was about thirteen years old. Whenever, in his reading, he came across anything that contained a good piece of advice as to how he should behave, he appears to have written it down in this book, so as to impress it on his memory.

35. You will have no difficulty in dividing the selection into three paragraphs if you will notice that the general subject, Washington's Education, is discussed under three heads or topics: 1. What he studied; 2. His copy books; 3. His rules of behavior. These three topics make a plan or outline of the selection.

36. Summary. — We have learned that —

By selecting and writing down in their proper order the topic of each paragraph of a composition we make a plan or outline.

It follows that —

Before writing a composition we should make a plan or outline by deciding upon the topics to be treated. Then, having made a topic sentence for each point, it will be easy to expand each sentence into a paragraph.

VIII. MAKING AN OUTLINE

37. Young writers often have difficulty in finding thoughts to express about a given subject. They are at a loss how to begin. They feel a strong temptation to copy from others, or even to copy from books. If a few thoughts come to them, they are apt to write them down in haphazard fashion. It is hoped that many such will find the following suggestions helpful.

38. If your subject relates to something that has come within your own experience, as "A School Excursion," your aim should be to recall what happened, select the most important things, and tell them in the order of their occurrence. If your subject is one about which you must get information from others, or in books, aim at least to originate **an outline.** Take an inventory of whatever knowledge or impressions you have on the subject before

consulting any authority, and you will find that one thought suggests another, and that thinking is becoming easier. On the other hand, nothing so enfeebles all ability in this direction as slavishly copying the thoughts of others. After you have exhausted your own resources, and have formed opinions of your own, it is proper to resort to books. You may then modify, expand, cut down, as your reading shows your first views were imperfect or erroneous. Books cannot be used honestly unless you make your own outline and express the thoughts in your own words.

39. It is an excellent practice before you begin to write your composition, to note down, as they occur to you, any matters of fact or illustration pertaining to the subject. Put in one group those thoughts that explain one part of the subject, and in another group those that explain another part, and so on. Each group will naturally form a paragraph.

40. You will find it a great help in arranging your thoughts in proper order if you first make an outline. This you can do by dividing your subject into parts or topics. If you were asked to write on "The American Indians," you might divide the subject into four topics: (1) their appearance, (2) their dress, (3) their houses, (4) their habits or occupations. If your subject should be "Winter Sports," you could divide it into: (1) skating, (2) coasting, (3) snowballing, (4) sleigh rides. Again, if the subject happened to be "The Uses of Wood," you could speak of its uses (1) as fuel, (2) for building purposes, (3) for making furniture. Having made a list of topics, you would not find it difficult to write a few sentences about each topic. This shows how a composition grows.

41. Following are two plans or outlines. Your outline of a given subject will vary according to the points you wish to bring out: —

A Picnic Party

1. Preparations, time, place, plans, looking forward.
2. The persons, the party, your companions.
3. The games, kind, persons, incidents.
4. The luncheon, what, where, how served.
5. The return, time, feelings.

The Fourth of July

1. The morning, time of rising, noises.
2. Spending-money, how much, how obtained, how, when, and where spent.
3. Accidents, who injured and how.
4. The parade, who, how many, when and where.
5. Fireworks, where and what.

42. Make an outline of four or five topics for each of the following subjects. Do not follow very closely the outlines already given.

1. Christmas. 2. A Sail. 3. One Saturday. 4. The Ball Game. 5. Going Fishing. 6. The Uses of Gold. 7. The Uses of Paper. 8. Different Modes of Travel. 9. The Uses of Ice. 10. Building Materials. 11. A Day on the Farm. 12. A Forenoon in the Kitchen.

43. Expand into a composition your outline on "building materials," telling among other things how each kind is prepared for use. Begin each paragraph with a good topic sentence.

To the Teacher. — Pupils should be given practice in finding paragraph topics and topic sentences until they can do it readily. Let them make topical outlines of suitable selections to be found in their readers.

IX. ONE THING AT A TIME

44. Every thought should bear on the central thought of the whole composition. Likewise every sentence should in some way help to explain the topic of the paragraph. If a sentence does not help to explain the paragraph topic, it does not belong in that paragraph.

45. In the following paragraph state the topic and find one or more sentences that do not properly belong to the paragraph. Give a good reason.

The Boyhood of Franklin

Franklin's boyhood was full of hard work. His education was very scanty, but he early showed a remarkable fondness for books. He once said that he could not remember when he did not know how to read. He was placed at school in his eighth year. This famous man is said to have invented stoves. In his tenth year he was taken from school to assist his father who was a tallow chandler and soap-maker. The lad worked at this distasteful business until his twelfth year, when he was apprenticed to his brother to learn the trade of a printer. At the age of seventeen, as the result of a quarrel with his brother, he ran away from home, and finally found himself in Philadelphia with a dollar and a quarter in his pocket. One of Franklin's most celebrated writings is "Poor Richard's Almanac."

46. The law of **unity** (or oneness) requires that a paragraph should have but **one topic**, and that every sentence should bear on that topic. Some of the sentences in the above paragraph violate this law because they relate to Franklin's manhood, not his boyhood.

X. THOUGHTS SHOULD BE PROPERLY RELATED

47. In a paragraph it is not only necessary that the sentences should all bear upon one subject, but they should also follow one another in natural *order* and be so

joined together that the transition from one to the other is smooth. If in writing about Franklin's boyhood you should tell what he did in his twelfth year before telling what happened in his eighth year, the order would be wrong. In telling a story, the different events or points should be mentioned in the order in which they happened.

48. Make the transition from paragraph to paragraph easy and natural. Let us examine again the selection on "The Bird's Home." You will see that every paragraph after the first contains an introductory word, and also some word that connects it in thought with the preceding paragraph.

Paragraph 2 is introduced by *so*, and the word *birds* is repeated. Paragraph 3 is introduced by *after*, and the word *place* is repeated. Paragraph 4 is introduced by *as*, and the pronoun *they* (referring back to *birds*) is used. Paragraph 5 is introduced by *when*, and the word *nest* is repeated. Paragraph 6 begins by repeating the word *birds*.

In this way each new thought is joined to what goes before. This law is sometimes called **coherence**, which means a *sticking together*. We should make our sentences and paragraphs stick together.

49. This connection of thought is often secured by the use of words and phrases like *and*, *but*, *also*, *again*, *moreover*, *however*, *nevertheless*, *yet*, *consequently*, *at the same time*, *on the contrary*, *for example*, *for instance*, etc. The same result is often secured: (*a*) by repeating some word or words; (*b*) by using a pronoun that refers to a noun in the preceding paragraph; (*c*) by using words like *this*, *that*, *such*, *so*, and *some*.

50. Summary. — 1. Every sentence in a paragraph must relate to the paragraph topic.

2. Sentences and paragraphs must be arranged in their proper order, and their relation must be clearly shown.

XI. NARRATION

51. Narration means story-telling. It may be the story of an individual life, then it is biography; it may be the story of a nation, in which case it is called history; or it may be a purely imaginary story, when it is spoken of as fiction.

To tell a story well is a natural gift with some; but it is also an art that can be acquired. We learn most things by imitation, then why may we not learn to tell stories in that way? Two things are necessary to success: observation and practice. First, we must study carefully how the best writers tell their stories, and then we must practice patiently until we succeed.

52. Let us begin with John Burroughs and see how he manages to tell the adventures of his animal friends so charmingly.

The Chipmunk's Escape

I was sitting in the woods one autumn day when I heard a small cry and a rustling amid the branches of a tree a few rods beyond me. Looking thither I saw a chipmunk fall through the air, and catch on a limb twenty or more feet from the ground. He appeared to have dropped from near the top of the tree.

He secured his hold upon the small branch that had luckily intercepted his fall, and sat perfectly still. In a moment more I saw a weasel — one of the small red varieties — come down the trunk of the tree and begin exploring the branches on a level with the chipmunk.

I saw in a moment what had happened. The weasel had driven the squirrel from his retreat in the rocks and stones beneath, and had pressed him so closely that he had taken refuge in the top of the tree. But weasels can climb trees, too, and this one had tracked the frightened chipmunk to the topmost branch, where he had tried to seize him. Then the squirrel had, in horror, let go his hold, screamed, and

fallen through the air, till he struck the branch just described. Now his bloodthirsty enemy was looking for him again, apparently relying entirely upon his sense of smell to guide him to the game.

How did the weasel know the squirrel had not fallen clear to the ground? He certainly did know, for when he reached the same tier of branches, he began exploring them. The chipmunk sat transfixed with fear, frozen with terror, not twelve feet away, and yet the weasel saw him not.

Round and round, up and down, he went on the branches, exploring them over and over. How he hurried lest the trail get cold! How subtle and cruel and fiendish he looked! His snakelike movements, his tenacity, his speed!

He seemed baffled; he knew his game was near, but he could not strike the spot. The branch upon the extreme end of which the squirrel sat ran out and up from the tree seven or eight feet, and then, turning a sharp elbow, swept down and out at right angles with its first course.

The weasel would pause each time at this elbow and turn back. It seemed as if he knew that particular branch held his prey, and yet its crookedness each time threw him out. He would not give it up, but went over this course again and again.

One can fancy the feelings of the chipmunk, sitting there in plain view a few feet away, watching his deadly enemy hunting for the clew. How his little heart must have stood still each time the fatal branch was struck! Probably, as a last resort, he would again have let go his hold and fallen to the ground, where he might have eluded his enemy a while longer.

In the course of five or six minutes the weasel gave over the search, and ran hurriedly down the tree to the ground. The chipmunk remained motionless for a long time; then he stirred a little as if hope were reviving. Then he looked nervously about him; then he recovered himself so far as to change his position. Presently he began to move cautiously along the branch to the bole of the tree; then, after a few moments' delay, he plucked up courage to descend to the ground, where I hope no weasel has disturbed him since.

—John Burroughs, "Squirrels and Other Fur Bearers."

53. We must conclude upon reading the above story that Mr. Burroughs knew beforehand just what he wanted

to tell and then told it as simply and directly as he could. He began just where the incident began, that is with the rustling which attracted his attention; then he went on and told the whole story *in the order* in which the incidents happened. Just enough mention of time and place is made to give it a setting in our minds. No unnecessary description of the animals takes our attention away from the *action* which is *the story*. The point of the story is the escape of the chipmunk, and this is kept until the end; we are in suspense like the chipmunk until the weasel goes away; then the *point* of the story is told and the story *is done*.

Short words, short sentences, and short paragraphs fit the incident and make easy reading. You need not stop to read again to find out the meaning, for it is all clear and direct.

Now notice that the explanation in paragraph 3 might have been placed first by a less skillful writer. By putting the mysterious rustle and fall first, the writer at once catches our attention — *he begins interestingly*. Notice in paragraphs 4 and 5 that a question or an exclamatory sentence makes the story more emphatic and paints a real picture for us. "How he hurried lest the trail get cold!" "How subtle and cruel and fiendish he looked!" Make these sentences declarative and they become tame; the picture is gone. Again in paragraph 8, "How his little heart must fairly have stood still," etc., gives us a perfect picture of terror. It makes us see and feel just what Mr. Burroughs saw and felt. That is the perfection of narration. Find in paragraph 5 an inverted sentence that makes the action more eager. How cleverly the writer tells of the gradual recovery of the chipmunk when the danger is over! Here the longer, slower sentences

and the repeated "thens" make the movement seem slow because they take time to read, and they give us an idea of caution.

54. Summary. — Let us summarize in rules what we have learned from this story: —

1. Know beforehand *all* you want to say.
2. Begin with time and place, and as interestingly as you can.
3. Tell directly and in the order of its happening.
4. Do not bring in unnecessary details.
5. Do not repeat except for emphasis.
6. Exclamatory and interrogative sentences give strong effect or *emphasis* and help to make a mental picture. When not overdone they lend variety and charm.
7. Transposed, or inverted, sentences give variety (p. 7).
8. Short sentences hurry; long ones linger. The former are useful when an exciting part of a story is told.
9. Make your reader see, feel, and hear just what you see, feel, and hear by keeping him in your mind and talking *to him* in your story.
10. *Stop* when you have made the point of your story.

55. Write about an incident or adventure that happened to a pet of yours or to some animal that you observed, or on one of the following: —

1. An adventure of a bird while building its nest.
2. The escape of a bird from a cat.
3. The story of a dog who saved a child.
4. The history of a lost cat that you befriended.
5. Tricks that our dog can do.

Keep the rules in mind while writing.

XII. STORIES TO BE RETOLD

56. An excellent practice is found in trying to repeat a story or an anecdote in our own words without omitting any essential detail.

The Sheep and the Birds

A father and his son were once sitting under a tree upon a hill. It was near sunset, and a flock of sheep were feeding near them. A strange man came along who had a dog with him. As soon as the sheep saw the dog, they became alarmed, and ran into some thorny bushes which grew near by. Some of their wool caught upon the thorns and was torn off.

When the boy saw this he was troubled, and said: "See, father, how the thorns tear away the wool from the poor sheep. These bushes ought to be cut down, so that hereafter they may not harm the sheep."

As they were speaking, a bird flew down among the bushes, picked off a tuft of wool, and carried it away in his beak to a high tree. "See," said the father, "with this wool the bird is making a soft bed for its young in the nest. How comfortable the little ones will be! and the sheep could well spare a little of their fleece. Do you now think it well to cut down the bushes?" "No," said the boy, "we will let them stand."

"Remember, my son," said the father, "that we are all dependent on one another. It seemed to you very hard that the poor sheep should lose their wool; but now you see that without this wool the little bird could not have its warm nest."

At what time of the day did this happen? What frightened the sheep? What did they do? What troubled the boy? What did he want to do? What changed his mind? What is the lesson of the story? Write out the story, and then compare your own with the original to see if you have omitted any important part of it.

The Arab and the Pearls

An Arab once lost his way in the desert, and was in danger of dying of hunger and thirst. After straying about for a long time, he came to a fountain of water, where the travelers in the desert were in the habit of stopping with their horses and camels to drink.

He saw lying upon the bank a small leather bag. "God be praised!" said he, as he took it up; "there may be dates or nuts inside, and I shall have something to eat as well as water to drink."

In this hope he quickly opened the bag; but, as soon as he saw what was inside, he said, with a sad countenance, "Alas! they are only pearls."

What are pearls? How are they used? Are they valuable? Can you eat them? If you were cast away upon a desolate island, which would be worth more to you — a loaf of bread or a bag of gold? What lesson does the story teach? Tell the story.

The Duke of Wellington

The Duke of Wellington was one day taking his usual country walk, when he heard a cry of distress. He walked to the spot and found a chubby, rosy-faced boy lying on the ground, bending his head over a tame toad, and crying as if his little heart would break. "What's the matter, my lad?" said the duke. "Oh, sir, please, sir, my poor toad — I bring it something to eat every morning. But they are going to send me off ever so far away to school; nobody will bring it anything to eat when I am gone, and I am afraid it will die." "Never mind, don't cry, lad — I'll see that the toad is well fed, and you shall hear all about it when you are at school." The boy thanked the gentleman heartily, dried up his tears, and went home. During the time he was at school he received five letters couched in the following terms: —

Strathfieldsaye, July 27, 1837.

Field Marshal the Duke of Wellington is happy to inform William Harries that his toad is alive and well.

What do we learn from this story about the boy's disposition? About the duke's character? Think of a better subject or title for the story. See how well you can tell the story from memory. Try to tell another story about kindness to animals.

Sir Isaac Newton

Sir Isaac Newton instructed his servants not to disturb him in his study by announcing dinner, but to place a portion of the fare in a plate down by the fire in the dining room for him to take when he

felt disposed. On one occasion a friend went to dine with him, but the philosopher was absorbed in abstruse problems, and as he was never allowed to be disturbed, his friend dined alone. Shortly after, Newton entered the dining room and went up to the fireplace for his dinner, which, owing to the presence of the visitor, had not been placed there. Not finding it, he said, "Really, I had forgotten that I had dined."

What is the point of this story? What would be a better title? Tell the story so as to bring out the "point."

The Important Corporal

During the American war, the leader of a little band of soldiers was giving orders to those under him, about a heavy beam that they were endeavoring to raise to the top of some military works which they were repairing. The weight was almost beyond their power to raise, and the voice of the superintendent was often heard shouting: "Heave away! There it goes! Heave ho!" An officer, not in military costume, was passing, and asked the superintendent why he did not render a little aid.

The officer, astonished, turned round with all the pomp of an emperor, and said, "Sir, I am a corporal!"

"I ask your pardon, Mr. Corporal," answered the stranger, and taking off his hat he bowed, saying, "I was not aware of that." Upon this he dismounted, and pulled till the sweat stood in drops on his forehead. And when the beam was raised, turning to the little great man, he said, "Mr. Corporal, when you have another such job, and have not men enough, send for your commander in chief, and I will gladly come and help you." The corporal was thunderstruck. It was Washington.

What sort of man was the corporal? Why do you think so? How did he feel when he found that he had been talking to Washington? Tell the story.

XIII. PRACTICE IN NARRATION

57. Write stories founded on some of the following. Use the incidents, but not the words. Omit everything not necessary to the story. Observe the rules that

you have learned about paragraphing and about story writing.

Longfellow — 1. Skeleton in Armor. 2. Wreck of the Hesperus. 3. Building of the Ship. 4. Miles Standish. 5. Selections from Hiawatha. 6. Evangeline. 7. Hanging of the Crane. 8. The Bell of Atri. 9. Paul Revere.

Whittier — 1. Barefoot Boy. 2. Among the Hills. 3. Snow-Bound. 4. Lexington.

Holmes — 1. One Hoss Shay. 2. Grandmother's Story of Bunker Hill.

Scott — Lochinvar.

Browning — 1. How they Brought the News. 2. Hervé Riel. 3. The Pied Piper.

Macaulay — Horatius.

Tennyson — 1. Charge of the Light Brigade. 2. Sir Galahad.

Kingsley — Three Fishers.

James T. Fields — The Captain's Daughter.

E. E. Hale — The Man without a Country.

Bayard Taylor — The Song in Camp.

George R. Simms — The Lights of London Town.

Southey — 1. The Inchcape Rock. 2. Bishop Hatto.

58. Complete the following **suggested stories**: —

1. "Look!" cried George, "I am sure I heard something behind those bushes." The two boys put down their fishing tackle and crept cautiously toward the spot. (Tell what happened.)

2. Captain Maytham was a retired sea captain who had visited nearly every important seaport in the world, and was fond of living over his past experiences. I once heard him tell this story. (Imagine the story.)

3. It was a cold night in winter. The farmer's children were sitting around a cheerful fire. They were joking and chatting, when a tapping was heard outside. Opening the door, the farmer saw an aged man, clothed in rags and shivering with the cold, who begged to be admitted. (Tell his story.)

4. One wild night in March many years ago, a girl sat in a fisherman's cottage awaiting the return of her father who was away in his fisherman's boat. (What caused the delay?)

5. Nobody who has not kept a goat can have any notion of how many different kinds of mischief a goat can get into without seeming to try. (Give the particulars.)

6. One day a poor woman, as she was going to market, said to her little daughter: "I am going out for two hours. When I go, shut the door and bolt it, and do not open it till I return."

7. A few months ago, a boat's crew of six men were lost, under the following circumstances: A boat had been lowered to take a whale. They had plunged the harpoon into the huge monster.

59. Write **newspaper items** on the following subjects. Make them short and interesting. Give the essential facts only. Consult a good newspaper to see how such items are written.

1. A street-car accident. 2. Many were disappointed. 3. Fire on Hudson Street. 4. Overcome by sewer gas. 5. A runaway. 6. A birthday party. 7. Panic in a school. 8. A prize offered. 9. Run down by an automobile. 10. Rescuing a child. 11. An illustrated lecture. 12. A school exhibit. 13. Seriously injured. 14. Subscription fund growing. 15. New church to be built. 16. A pleasant occasion. 17. Burglars at work. 18. Reception to a minister. 19. Closed for repairs. 20. A policeman injured.

60. Write **short stories** suggested by the following hints: —

1. Fireman — child — ladder.
2. Swing — child — band of gypsies.
3. Boy — girl — pond — raft — accident — dog.
4. Holland — dike — break — boy — danger — hand — arrival of men — result.
5. Young goat — roof — wolf passing — taunting words — what made the goat so bold?

61. Proverbs briefly and forcibly express well-known truths, and embody the practical wisdom of the human race. For this reason they are not only well worth memorizing, but afford excellent subjects for compositions.

They always imply a larger truth than they actually state. The proverb, "A shoemaker should stick to his last," applies to other people as well as to shoemakers, and means, "A person should not meddle with what he does not understand."

62. Tell in your own words what each proverb means. Give facts to illustrate its meaning. Tell a story or incident that brings out the same general truth.

1. The shoemaker should stick to his last.
2. A burnt child dreads the fire.
3. A rolling stone gathers no moss.
4. Lazy people take the most pains.
5. Birds of a feather flock together.
6. Where there's a will there's a way.
7. Half a loaf is better than no bread.
8. Haste makes waste.
9. Necessity is the mother of invention.
10. A guilty conscience needs no accuser.
11. A work well begun is half done.
12. Too many cooks spoil the broth.
13. Do not whistle till you are out of the woods.
14. Fools build houses and wise men buy them.
15. Listeners hear no good of themselves.
16. He that begins many things finishes but few.
17. Law makers should not be law breakers.
18. One swallow does not make a summer.
19. You cannot eat your cake and have it too.
20. Little strokes fell great oaks.
21. An empty house is better than a bad tenant.
22. A threadbare coat is proof against robbers.
23. Every bird likes his own nest best.

For other proverbs, see p. 103.

63. A **conversation** carried on by two or more persons (or things personified) is often employed to enliven a narrative, as in the next selection.

"And now we come to the chair, my dear children," said Grandfather. "This chair is supposed to have been made of an oak tree which grew in the park of the English Earl of Lincoln between two and three centuries ago. When his daughter, the Lady Arabella, was married to a certain Mr. Johnson, the earl gave her this valuable chair."

"Who was Mr. Johnson?" inquired Clara.

"He was a gentlemen of great wealth, who agreed with the Puritans in their religious opinions," answered Grandfather. "And as his belief was the same as theirs, he resolved that he would live and die with them. Accordingly, in the month of April, 1630, he left his pleasant abode and all his comforts in England, and embarked, with Lady Arabella, on board of a ship bound for America."

"How did she like her hard life in America?" asked Alice.

"In one short month from her arrival she faded away and died," replied Grandfather.

"Oh, the lady must have been so glad to get to heaven!" exclaimed little Alice.

"Grandfather, what became of Mr. Johnson?" asked Clara.

"His heart appears to have been quite broken," answered Grandfather; "for he died at Boston within a month after the death of his wife."

"I never heard anything so melancholy," said Clara.

"The people loved and respected Mr. Johnson so much," continued Grandfather, "that it was the last request of many of them, when they died, that they might be buried as near as possible to this good man's grave. And so the field became the first burial ground in Boston. When you pass through Tremont Street, along by King's Chapel, you see a burial ground containing many old gravestones and monuments. That was Mr. Johnson's field."

—HAWTHORNE (adapted).

64. Notice in the above selection that a new paragraph begins whenever a different person begins to talk.

Notice, also, that what each speaker says is introduced by some such expression as "said Grandfather," "inquired Clara," "exclaimed Alice," and that this expression often follows the whole or a part of what it introduces.

Other introductory verbs often used in written conversations are : —

Answered, replied, exclaimed, observed, demanded, cried, continued, remarked, whispered, thought, added, sighed, implored, began, shouted, shrieked, muttered, called out, drawled, etc.

For punctuation of conversations, see p. 99.

65. Write out the following conversation between a wolf and a lamb, using a variety of introductory verbs. Write a short introduction and a conclusion.

Wolf: Last year you insulted me.
Lamb: I was not then born.
Wolf: Then you feed in my pasture.
Lamb: I have not yet tasted grass.
Wolf: You drink at my spring.
Lamb: No, I never yet drank water, for as yet my mother's milk is all the food and drink I need.

66. Write an imaginary conversation between —

1. A cat and a mouse. 2. A shepherd and a wolf. 3. A dog and a sheep. 4. Two goats meeting on a narrow bridge. 5. A city dog and a country dog. 6. A boy looking for work and an employer. 7. George and Frank about Santa Claus. 8. A lost child and a policeman. 9. Jennie and Ella about their lessons. 10. A boy just entering school and his teacher. 11. A girl and her mother about a birthday party.

12. One night as I was walking home my attention was arrested by a soft, sweet voice. Turning around, I found at my elbow a pretty little girl, who begged to be directed to a certain street in a distant quarter of the city. (Give the conversation, and let her tell her story.)

XIV. BIOGRAPHY

67. A biography is a life history. Its purpose is to portray a man that others may know him as his intimate friends knew him. How did they learn to know him?

By his looks, his words, his acts; by his companionships; by his chief interests. The biographer, by giving a vigorous, graphic account of these, makes the man become real to us as we read.

To the Teacher. — It is recommended that selections from well-known biographies be read to the class. For example: "The First Landing of Columbus," and "Columbus in Chains," from Irving's "Life of Columbus." Each pupil should read at least one good biography.

Outline of Life of Columbus

1. Early life.

Account of birth — parentage — interests — education — early voyages.

2. Seeking a western route.

His studies — state of geographical knowledge — his beliefs — seeking aid from Portugal — at Court of Spain — is aided by Isabella.

3. The first voyage.

Preparations — ships and crews — departure — at the Canary Islands — voyage — terrors of seamen — variation of needle — trade winds — signs of land — landing.

Fort Navidad — seeking gold — return — reception at Barcelona.

4. Other voyages.

Second voyage — explorations — colonization — enthusiasm — founding a city.

Third voyage — discovery of South America — conspiracies — insurrections — sufferings — confusion.

5. Columbus in chains.

Character of colonist — Roldan — conspirators at court — charges — Bobadilla sent — arrest — sent to Spain in irons — indignation of people — defense — upheld by Isabella.

6. Last voyage and death.

Orvando — shipwrecked — meeting — return — Isabella's death — Ferdinand's ingratitude — death and burial.

7. Character of Columbus.

Evidences of his learning — courage — piety — justice — patience — loyalty — nobility of mind.

NOTE TO TEACHER. — In a large class different groups of pupils could profitably be assigned different parts of the same life. In this way an interesting account of the life would be written, and variety secured.

68. Plan an outline of a similar kind of the life of Washington, Franklin, Jefferson, Lincoln, Longfellow, Lanier, or of any other well-known person. By *reading* and *thinking* inform yourself well concerning *what* you wish to say — then write the biography.

TOPICS FROM BIOGRAPHIES

Robert Morris: services rendered during the Revolution.
Father Marquette: his explorations.
George Washington: winter spent at Valley Forge.
De Witt Clinton: activity in building the Erie Canal.
De Soto: burial in the Mississippi River.
Daniel Boone: his adventures with the Indians.

69. **Autobiography** is the story of an individual told by himself. A good example of this kind of writing is the "Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin."

An interesting form of autobiography is that in which an animal or inanimate thing is made to tell its story. "Black Beauty" and "The Story of a Donkey" are examples.

TO THE TEACHER. — The class should read, or have read to them, Joseph Addison's clever story entitled "The Adventures of a Shilling."

70. The following are suggested as subjects for imaginary autobiographies: —

1. An easy chair.
2. A silver dollar.
3. A freight car.
4. A rubber shoe.
5. An oyster.
6. An old woolen carpet.
7. An old sword.
8. A canary.
9. A sealskin cap.
10. A lump of coal.

11. A flintlock musket.
12. A gold pen.
13. A lead pencil.
14. A postage stamp.
15. A stray cat.
16. A coffee ground.
17. A gingham apron.
18. A grain of rice.
19. A pocket knife.
20. An old silk dress.
21. What the school clock saw.
22. My three masters (by a dog).
23. How different children used me (by a book).
24. Different kinds of drivers (by a horse).
25. How I have given pleasure (by a family carriage).

XV. INTRODUCTIONS: HOW TO BEGIN

71. Sometimes we are at a loss how to begin our story. Let us study a few beginnings to see what things should be told in an introductory paragraph.

The fourteenth of August was the day fixed upon for the sailing of the brig *Pilgrim*, on her voyage from Boston around Cape Horn to the western coast of North America.

—DANA, "Two Years Before the Mast."

One afternoon of a cold winter's day, when the sun shone forth with chilly brightness, after a long storm, two children asked leave of their mother to run out and play in the new-fallen snow.

—HAWTHORNE, "Snow Image."

As I sat looking from my window the other morning, upon a red squirrel gathering nuts from a small hickory and storing them up in his den in the bank, I was forcibly reminded of the state of constant fear and apprehension in which the wild creatures live.

—BURROUGHS, "Squirrels and Fur Bearers."

At Santen, in the Lowlands, there once lived a young prince named Siegfried. His father, Sigmund, was king of the rich country through which the lazy Rhine winds its way just before reaching the great North Sea, etc. — BALDWIN, "Siegfried."

72. As will be seen by the foregoing selections, most narratives begin with an introduction of the **people**, the **place**, the **time**, and the **circumstances** or **occasion** with which the story deals.

73. Write introductions suitable for the following stories. Tell **who**, **where**, **when**, and **why**.

Going nutting.	The Boston Tea Party.
A balloon ascent.	Ascending Vesuvius.
How I saw a ghost.	A ride in a gondola.
My first day at school.	A fairy tale.
In a sugar camp.	Thanksgiving Day.

74. Summary.—A narrative consists of three parts: a **beginning**, or **introduction**, in which we are made acquainted with the characters, time, place, and circumstances of the action; a **middle**, in which the plot is developed or the incident told; and a **conclusion**, which sums up or tells how the story ended or what the results were.

XVI. DESCRIPTION

75. It is more difficult to describe an object than to tell a story. You would doubtless find it easier to give an account of a picnic in which you had taken part than to describe a particular house so that others would recognize the description. You cannot describe any object accurately until you have observed and studied it closely. But when you begin carefully to notice its qualities, the use that is made of it, its size and shape, the parts of which it is composed, the material of which it is made, and how it resembles or differs from other things of the same general kind, you begin to get the ideas you need and find your subject gradually unfolding.

76. Tell the *qualities* and *uses* of the following:—

EXAMPLE: Glass is hard, smooth, transparent, brittle, and colorless. It is used in windows to admit light, in spectacles to assist the eyesight, and for making useful articles, such as tumblers, pitchers, vases, lamps, etc.

lead	sponge	ice	clouds	copper
silver	wool	brick	iron	coal
water	chalk	cotton	molasses	sand

77. Describe each of the following familiar things by telling *use*, *parts*, *size*, *shape*, and *material*: —

EXAMPLE: A hammer is an instrument for driving nails and beating metals. It consists of a head, usually made of steel, fixed to a handle of wood. The head is usually four or five inches long and the handle about twelve.

penknife	broom	chimney	nail	penholder
spoon	chisel	shovel	hatchet	window
saw	basket	umbrella	scissors	skates
plane	school desk	thermometer	clock	book

78. Adjectives that may be used in describing things. Name something that is —

hard	light	solid	fragrant	pungent
soft	heavy	sparkling	transparent	heavenly
tough	inflammable	porous	acid	fragile
brittle	pliable	durable	sour	rough
liquid	elastic	adhesive	tasteless	smooth
flat	pointed	straight	thin	deep
tapering	rounded	crooked	thick	shallow

79. The following outline will help in describing a domestic animal.

THE COW

1. General appearance: size, shape, covering.
2. Parts: head, horns, neck, body, legs, hoofs; compare each part with that of a different animal.
3. Habits: what a cow does; her food, how she eats grass, chewing her cud, lowing, how she lies down.
4. Uses: milk, flesh, hide, hair, horns, hoofs.

80. Adjectives that may be used in describing animals. Name an animal that is —

heavy	slender	thick-set	strong	quiet
tame	obstinate	timid	gnawing	shaggy
fierce	keen-scented	light	cruel	web-footed
cold-blooded	flesh-eating	grass-eating	greedy	gentle
muscular	nocturnal	cunning	domestic	smooth
striped	spotted	swift	powerful	ferocious
ingenious	faithful	playful	intelligent	tawny

81. The purpose of description is to form in the mind of the hearer or reader an **image** or **mental picture** of the thing described. When we first look at an object we get a general impression; then, further observation gives us the details. Therefore, in describing a place or person, we should begin with general features and then follow with the particulars.

82. Read carefully the following description of a house: —

Picture to yourself a large white house just across the road, nearly opposite our cottage. It is not a house, but a mansion, built in the colonial period, with large rambling extensions, and gambrel roof, and a wide piazza on three sides. . . . It stands back from the road, and has an obsequious retinue of fringed elms and oaks and weeping willows. — THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH.

The above description begins with the general appearance, "a large white house"; next follow the details about the extensions, roof, piazza, and then the surroundings.

83. In describing the following, begin with a general statement as to position, size, color, etc.; then proceed with further details, and the surroundings.

1. Any public building that you have seen. 2. A house. 3. A bridge. 4. A church. 5. The post office. 6. A monument. 7. An elm tree. 8. An American flag. 9. A lighthouse. 10. A boat landing. 11. A shop window. 12. After a snowstorm.

84. Study the following description of Cortes: —

In stature he was rather above the middle size. His complexion was pale and his large dark eye gave an expression of gravity to his countenance, not to be expected in one of his cheerful temperament. His figure was slender, at least until later life; but his chest was deep, his shoulders broad, his frame muscular and well proportioned. His dress was such as to set off his handsome person to advantage; neither gaudy nor striking, but rich. He wore few ornaments, but these were of great price. His manners, frank and soldierlike, concealed a most cool and calculating spirit. — W. H. PRESCOTT.

In this description the author first makes a general statement about the stature of Cortes, and then gives particulars about his features, his dress, and his manners.

85. Write descriptions of one or more of the following persons, after careful observation: —

1. An organ grinder. 2. A street peddler. 3. A newsboy. 4. An auctioneer. 5. A boy you know. 6. A girl in your class. 7. A neighbor. 8. The captain of a football team.

XVII. DESCRIPTION AND NARRATION

86. Description is an essential part of oral and written narrative. A great part of our conversation and writing consists in telling how people look and act, how they are dressed, how places and things appear to us.

Let us read the following selection[1] from "Hans Brinker," and notice how the descriptive passages run along with the narrative in short, crisp sentences: —

On a bright December morning, long ago, two thinly clad children were kneeling upon the bank of a frozen canal in Holland.

The sun had not yet appeared, but the gray sky was parted near the horizon, and its edges shone crimson with the coming day.

Now and then some peasant woman, poising a well-filled basket on her head, came skimming over the glassy surface of the canal; or a

[1] Used by special arrangement with Charles Scribner's Sons.

lusty boy, skating to his day's work in the town, cast a good-natured grimace toward the shivering pair as he flew along.

Meanwhile, with many a vigorous puff and pull, the brother and sister, for such they were, seemed to be fastening something upon their feet; not skates, certainly, but clumsy pieces of wood, narrowed and smoothed at their lower edge, and pierced with holes through which were threaded strings of rawhide.

In a moment the boy arose, and, with a pompous swing of his arms and a careless "Come on, Gretel," glided easily across the canal, and in another moment they were laughing together, as, hand in hand, they flew along the canal, never thinking whether the ice would bear or not, for in Holland ice is generally an all-winter affair.

Just then a clear, quick voice was heard calling, "Hans! Gretel!"

"It's the mother," said Hans, looking solemn in an instant.

By this time the canal was gilded with sunlight. The pure morning air was very delightful, and skaters were gradually increasing in numbers. It was hard to obey the summons, but Hans and Gretel were good children. Without a thought of yielding to the temptation to linger, they pulled off their skates, leaving half the knots still tied. Hans, with his great square shoulders and bushy yellow hair, towered high above his little sister as they trudged homeward. He was fifteen years old and Gretel was twelve. He was a solid, hearty-looking boy, with honest eyes and a brow that seemed to bear a sign, "goodness within," just as the little Dutch summer house wears a motto over its portal. Gretel was lithe and quick. Her eyes had a dancing light in them, and while you looked at her cheek the color paled and deepened, just as it does upon a bed of pink and white blossoms when the wind is blowing.

—Mary Mapes Dodge.

87. Point out the descriptive words or passages in the above selection, and describe orally the pictures they call to your mind.

88. Description is Word Painting. — If you were a painter, could you make a picture of the scene with which the above selection opens, — the level country, the frozen canal, the kneeling children, and the gray eastern sky just breaking apart to show the rising sun? Can you

see the clumsy wooden skates which the children have fastened upon their feet with strings of rawhide, and upon which they are flying along the canal, passing the market woman with her loaded basket upon her head, and the boy going to his daily work? Have you a mental picture of sturdy, yellow-haired Hans, with his kind, honest face, trudging homeward with his fair-faced little sister? This is what the author intended us to see. She painted the picture for us in *words*.

In describing anything we should aim to produce in the mind of the reader or hearer a picture of the thing described.

In describing objects we should notice their size, form, color, structure, and their movements, if they have life, — the things which make an impression upon our senses, especially upon our sight.

89. Observation. — The first thing that you must learn in this connection is *how to see things*.

It is the old story of "eyes and no eyes." One person walks through the world with his eyes open, another with his eyes shut. The one finds everywhere things that interest and enlarge and enrich his mind; the other finds the world a dull and uninteresting place.

90. Selection and Arrangement. — We shall find that in describing any object, however simple, it will be impossible to mention everything which we observe in it. We must, therefore, select those points which are most important or which will contribute to the impression which we desire to create, and be careful not to overcrowd our picture with too much detail.

Notice the description of Hans, beginning with the statement, "Hans and Gretel were good children." We do not know whether his eyes were blue or black, and yet

we have a vivid portrait of the boy, more by what is suggested than by what is told. What the writer wanted us to know is, that he was a boy to be trusted everywhere.

(1) Select the expressions which describe the *character* of Hans. (2) Write the story from memory. (3) Write a similar story on another subject.

91. In writing on the following subjects, not only tell what happened, but describe some of the persons, places, or things connected with the story.

1. A journey in autumn. 2. Delivering papers. 3. Experiences of a messenger boy. 4. A trip to Chicago. 5. A visit to a factory. 6. Chasing a burglar. 7. Having a picture taken. 8. A visit to a gypsy camp. 9. Keeping store. 10. My first attempt at cooking.

92. Description of Pictures. — No exercise has greater possibilities for giving power in description than the study of pictures if properly conducted. With young children, pictures that are full of action, and that readily suggest stories, are best; but older pupils should do more then tell imaginary stories about pictures.

If a child in looking at a picture gives a mere enumeration of the objects shown in it without bringing out the relation in which they stand to one another, little good results from the practice either in promoting his appreciation of works of art or in gaining language power.

Although pictures differ widely in character, a somewhat uniform method of study may be pursued with regard to them. The following hints are offered as a guide to their study: —

No picture that rises to the distinction of being termed a work of art was ever painted except to give expression to some thought or feeling that dominated the artist's mind. Every detail was chosen with reference to this fundamental idea. It follows, therefore, that in the study

of a picture the first question should be directed to the **idea** or **motive**. This is frequently set forth in the name or title of the picture, and constitutes the "center of interest" in the picture. This is frequently, but not always, found in the foreground.

To understand the idea fully, **time** and **place** elements must be considered. They form the setting of the picture. Ordinarily, the mere statement of what the place is and how the time is indicated will suffice.

The point that calls for the most careful elaboration is what may be termed the theme or motive of the picture, that through which the artist tells his story or conveys his feeling.

To the foregoing may be added a word about the **artist**, leading the observer to see in the picture an expression of the man himself in his work.

The study of portraits requires a word in addition. A good portrait is never a mere catalogue of features and articles of dress, but aims to portray or set forth the **character** of the individual. The pupil should, therefore, try to discover what is fundamental in the character of the person shown and look for its expression in the picture. For example, in the study of Stuart's Washington the dignity of the great general should be brought out.

93. Summary. — Remember the following points: —

1. To describe an object accurately, first observe it clearly.
2. Begin with general characteristics, like size, shape, color, etc.
3. Next select the particulars or details which will best create the desired image or impression.
4. A narrative is made more interesting by describing some of the persons or places mentioned.
5. In describing a picture, a good order of study is as follows: **(1) subject,** (2) place, (3) time, (4) motive, (5) the artist.

XVIII. EXPOSITION

94. Whatever we may say or write for the purpose of making something clear to others is called Exposition. In other words, exposition is explanation. Whether people are young or old, they are constantly explaining things. In school, children explain what a cape is, or how clouds are formed, or why the United States fought with Mexico, or how we proceed to find the cost of carpeting a room. At home, they explain to their parents what has happened during the day, and how or why. The merchant explains to his customers the qualities of his goods. The orator explains to his audience the principles which he wishes to enforce. The chief purpose of text-books and many other books, of newspapers and magazines, is to make things clearer to those who study or read them. The word *exposition* means **a setting forth.**

95. How does exposition differ from description? In description we deal with the *appearance* of things, or tell **how they look.** In exposition we deal with the *nature* of things, or tell **what they are.** In describing a Spring Flood, you would picture how the flood looked. In explaining the same subject, you would set forth the nature of the flood and its causes.

96. Read aloud the following paragraphs, and tell what each explains: —

Cranberries are not picked like strawberries, daintily and one by one. Experienced workers plunge both hands under the vines and literally scoop up the fruit by handfuls. A rake, which allows the vines to pass through its teeth and retains the berries, is also used, but is far less satisfactory than hand labor. — "The Youth's Companion."

After the labor of setting up your tent, your thoughts will naturally turn to a place for sleeping. Cut four forked sticks, sharpen the ends, and drive them firmly into the ground at the spot where you wish your bed to stand. Two strong poles, long enough to reach length-

wise from fork to fork, will serve for side boards; a number of shorter sticks, placed crosswise, will answer for slats; after these are fastened in place, you have a rustic bedstead. — D. C. BEARD, "The American Boys' Handy Book."

Each of the above paragraphs explains the *method* of doing something, or answers the question **How?**

97. Write explanations of two or more of the following subjects. Imagine that you are trying to make the process clear to a friend who does not know.

1. How to make a match safe. 2. How to patch an apron. 3. How to set up a tent. 4. How to catch trout. 5. How to make corn balls. 6. How to make gingerbread. 7. How coal is mined. 8. How shoes are made. 9. How wheat is harvested. 10. How food is digested. 11. How bad air poisons us. 12. How to fish through the ice. 13. How to make a blowgun. 14. Explain the culture of rice, oranges, tea, coffee, bananas. 15. Explain the manufacture of paper, stoves, soap, bricks, flour, veneered furniture.

98. Read aloud the following paragraphs, and tell what each explains: —

Chicago is the nearest lake port to the most productive grain region in the world. It is also within easy reach of coal fields, while lumber and iron are readily brought to it by boat. These facts have caused Chicago to grow with wonderful rapidity. — TARR AND MCMURRY'S "Geography."

Bedrooms should face the east, and let in the full flush of the morning. There is a positive pleasure in a golden bath of early morning light. Your room is filled and glorified. You awake in the very spirit of light. It creeps upon you, and suffuses your soul; it irradiates your thoughts, and warms and cheers the whole day.

— HENRY WARD BEECHER.

The above paragraphs give *causes* or *reasons;* they answer the question **Why?**

99. Write expositions of two or more of the following subjects: —

1. Why the days are shorter in December than in June. 2. Why you would not care to live in the Tropics. 3. Why exercise is neces-

sary to the health. 4. Why food should be thoroughly masticated. 5. Why Pittsburg has become a great city. 6. Explain the causes of day and night, the change of seasons, ocean currents, the trade winds. 7. Explain the causes of the Revolutionary War, the War of 1812, the Mexican War, the Spanish War.

100. Read aloud the following selections, and tell what each explains: —

A newspaper, if the word is to be taken in its literal sense, is a paper which gives news; and this was all that the first newspapers undertook to do. But the daily press is now used for many other purposes. Besides giving news, it gives advice, praise, or blame. Newspapers, as we now know them, are organs of public opinion on all kinds of subjects, social, political, legal, industrial, scientific, literary.

— NESFIELD'S "English Composition."

Going after the cows was a serious thing in my day. I had to climb a hill which was covered with wild strawberries in the season. Could any boy pass by those ripe strawberries? And then in the fragrant hill pasture there were beds of wintergreen with red berries, tufts of columbine, roots of sassafras to be dug, and dozens of things good to eat or to smell that I could not resist. In the midst of my investigations the tin horn would blow a great blast from the farmhouse, as if to say, "Why on earth doesn't that boy come home?"

— CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER, "Being a Boy."

Simeon Patch came of a hard-working, honest race, whose pride it had been to keep out of debt, and he was a true child of his ancestors. Not a dollar would he spend that was not in his hand; a mortgaged house was his horror. So he paid cash for every blade of grass on his lot of land, and every nail in his bit of a house, and settled down patiently in it until he should grub together enough more to buy a few additional boards and shingles and pay the money down.

— MARY E. WILKINS.

The first paragraph gives an accurate, literal statement of what a newspaper is. The second is a literary man's recollection of what "going after the cows" meant to him as a boy. The third explains what kind of man Simeon Patch was. Each paragraph answers the question, **What?** or **What kind?**

101. Write a paragraph on one or more of the following subjects. Do not describe the thing, but tell what it is. If the subject is a person, give characteristics; that is, tell what kind of person he or she is or was.

1. The Gulf Stream. 2. Tides. 3. Lead. 4. Zinc. 5. Copper. 6. A weather map. 7. A volcano. 8. The lungs. 9. An avalanche. 10. A geyser. 11. An ideal playground. 12. A lawn mower. 13. Going to the fair. 14. A cash register. 15. A voting machine. 16. A boy I know. 17. A girl in my class. 18. William Penn. 19. Andrew Jackson. 20. General Grant. 21. Robert E. Lee. 22. Thomas A. Edison. 23. Andrew Carnegie. 24. Some character in literature. 25. Explain the meaning of two of the proverbs on p. 350.

102. Read aloud the following selection and tell what it explains: —

If I were writing about the rich, I should be inclined to divide them according to their attitude towards life into workers and parasites, but this classification will serve for the poor as well. The motto of the worker is, "I owe the world a life," and the motto of the parasite is, "The world owes me a living." — MARY E. RICHMOND.

The above paragraph divides the rich and the poor into two **classes**, workers and parasites.

103. Explain the following by naming different kinds. Describe each kind, or give some information about it.

1. Precious metals. 2. Kinds of coal. 3. Kinds of dogs. 4. Tropical fruits. 5. Methods of transportation. 6. Means of lighting houses, past and present. 7. Some useful metals. 8. Fur-bearing animals. 9. Automobiles. 10. The leading industries of this locality. 11. Two kinds of boys. 12. Two kinds of courage.

104. Summary. We have learned that —

1. We may explain a subject by setting forth: (1) the **method**; (2) the **cause** or **reason**; (3) the **nature**; (4) the **kinds**, or **classes**; (5) **illustrations** or **instances** (p. 334).

2. We may **combine** narration, description, and exposition, and as many kinds of exposition as we need, in the same composition.

XIX. LETTER WRITING

105. There is no form of composition so common as letter writing. You may seldom find it necessary to write essays after leaving school, but you will have increasing occasion for writing letters. Separation from friends, social relations, business matters, all will demand that letters be written.

106. Social Letters. — The friendly or social letter may be description or narration, or both, and all rules and suggestions for effective composition apply to letter writing of this kind. In the most charming letters, however, mere description and narration become secondary, and the personality of the writer is what lends interest. That is why letter writing is such a fine art — because the feelings, the thoughts, the character, the ideals, of the writer show through his descriptions and narrations, and give to the letter its individuality. We want a friendly letter to be just like its writer. We all know how easy it is to talk to those we know and care for; and letter writing is no more than talking to them at a distance, with only the trouble of putting the conversation on paper.

EUGENE FIELD TO HIS BOYS[1]

AMSTERDAM, Nov. 8, 1889.

MY DEAR BOYS: —

I wonder whether you miss me as much as I miss you. I wish you were here in Amsterdam with us, for it is a beautiful city, and it is full of curious sights. Mr. Lynch has bought a pair of wooden shoes to take to little Leigh, and I have bought a funny old watch and a Dutch pipe.

To-night we go to London, and in the morning we shall be in the rooms where you were with us ten days ago. I shall expect to hear

[1] Used by special arrangement with Charles Scribner's Sons.

from each one of you once a week. Meanwhile be courteous and attentive to Professor and Madame Rhule; when you play, play hard; when you study, study hard. You must take good care of your health, and be careful not to overexert yourselves at the gymnasium. Pinny must write to his Aunt Etta, Melvin must write to Mr. Gray, and sometime Dady must write to his Aunt Carrie.

Good-by, my dear boys; I shall write again from London in a day or two.

Affectionately,

EUGENE FIELD.

LUCY LARCOM TO JOHN G. WHITTIER

WOLFVILLE, NOVA SCOTIA,
Aug. 21, 1884.

MY DEAR FRIEND:—

I am moved to write to you from here, where I sit looking out upon the Basin of Minas, and Grand Pré itself, the mud of which latter I have been trying to remove from my dress, though I suppose I ought to let it stay spattered with poetic associations!

Yesterday we were taken to drive through the valley of the Gaspereau, a lovely region, under perfect cultivation, — and so on over the old dikes of Grand Pré, where we stood upon the site of the old church, and saw the cellar of what was supposed to be the priest's house, close by the church.

The people here think they know where Evangeline's father lived, and just where Basil the blacksmith had his forge — so mixed are our illusions with our historic certainties! I find myself believing in Evangeline as a real maiden, one who once lived and suffered on this very soil, and I gathered a daisy and a wild rose for you, which her hand might have plucked, instead of mine, as a memorial of her lost home.

We had a pleasant sail to Halifax — the sea as smooth as glass, and so no excuse for sickness. I had friends in Halifax, who took us to the citadel and the park, the latter the finest I ever saw, because left chiefly to nature; just woods of pine and spruce overlooking the harbor, which I can well believe to be what the Nova Scotians claim for it — the most beautiful harbor in the world.

You are often spoken of here, and by those who wish you would visit the place. The journey is a long one, and I suppose, as I tell them, that you would not feel like taking it. But there is a charm

about the people and the region which can only be felt by being here, — everybody seems very intelligent and hospitable, — no extreme poverty anywhere that I can see.

Yours always,

LUCY LARCOM.

107. Form. — If you read the above letters carefully, you will notice that they consist of two elements, — the "what to say," which cannot be learned from books, but must come directly from your own heart and head, and the "how to say it," which is the orderly arrangement of the parts of a letter, called its **form**. While the message itself is far more interesting and important than the form, no one who neglects the form and appearance of his message can hope to be thought a good letter writer. Read the letters again, observing the form only. Notice first the **heading**. In both the letters you will see it written a little to the right of the middle of the page, sometimes on one line, sometimes on two, according to its length. What facts does the heading give? Why are these facts important? Observe carefully the capitals and the punctuation.

108. Next look at the **greeting**, or **salutation**. The forms of the salutation may differ according to the relations existing between writer and correspondent. *Dear Sir* and *Dear Madam*, both proper salutations with which to begin business letters, or even letters of acquaintance, are too formal to express the close and friendly relations shown in these letters. There is no invariable rule for punctuation in the salutation. The comma is used more frequently for familiar letters, and the colon for business.

109. Next comes the **body** of the letter, which is the message; in fact, it is the letter itself. As the body of a friendly letter depends entirely upon the mood of the

writer or the occasion of his writing, no general rule can be made to govern its contents.

Read the sample letters again, and notice that they are like conversations, and delightful conversations too, because no attempt is made to use big words, or to write of far-away, high-sounding things.

In Eugene Field's letter to his boys, notice the simplicity of thought. A little interesting description, a little fatherly advice, pleasantly given, and much love through it all.

The second is a travel letter, written by a poet to a poet friend; yet see how simple and conversational it is! Just as if they had met and were talking it over.

110. Now look along to the **conclusion** of the letter. The conclusion consists of some complimentary phrase, only the first word of which begins with a capital letter, and the writer's full name or signature. Here again the forms will differ according to the degree of friendship existing between writer and correspondent. *Your loving daughter*, *Your affectionate son*, *Yours*, *with love*, express the relationships in a family, or between the closest friends. In letters more formal than these given, such phrases as, *Yours cordially*, *Sincerely yours*, are in place. In business letters, the favorite ending is *Yours truly* or *Very truly yours*. *Yours respectfully* is used only when the writer wishes to show the great difference in the ages or in the social standing of himself and his correspondent. While there may be great variety in the complimentary phrase, it is important that the signature should be your full name. Especially is it necessary in a business letter that the name be fully and plainly written; and if the writer is a woman, she must prefix to her name *Miss* or *Mrs.* in parentheses, in order that her correspondent may know her correct title in replying to her.

111. The **superscription** is the name and address written upon the envelope. When a letter is sent to a city, the street and house number are included in the address.

If a post-office box number is a part of the address, it is written in the lower left corner. The stamp should always be placed in the upper right corner. The name and address of the sender should be written on the back of the envelope, if the letter is important, as it enables the postmaster to return the letter if the person to whom it is addressed cannot be found. This information is so important in business letters that it is always found printed in the upper left corner of business envelopes. Punctuation marks may be used or omitted after the lines of the superscription. Abbreviations require periods. The first line is written about midway across the envelope, and the remaining lines indented toward the right, according to the size of the envelope and the length of the address.

112. Write the proper headings and salutations for the following letters: —

1. To your mother, supposing you are visiting in Boston, and staying at 149 Dana St.
2. To The Macmillan Co., 66 Fifth Avenue, New York.
3. To your teacher.
4. To a large business firm in your city.
5. Write the proper conclusion for each of the above.
6. Write the superscription for each.

113. The following will afford exercise in writing friendly letters.

1. Eugene Field's boys were boarding with a family in Hanover, Germany, and going to a German school at the time. Write Melvin's answer to the father's letter. Of course they were homesick, without father or mother. They had to speak German at table, and the

schoolmaster was very strict with them. They wanted skates and boxing gloves, and Pinny wanted a watch.

2. Read the first four stanzas of "Snow-Bound." Then tell a cousin in Porto Rico what a New England snowstorm is like. Describe the storm, the appearance of things the morning following the storm, and the work of digging a path to the barn, etc. Use your own language. Make it as nearly like a conversation as you can.

3. You have a sick friend whom the sea air would benefit. Invite that friend to come to your summer home. Tell him how much good the salt air and sea bathing will do him. Tell him what train to take, what wraps or clothing to bring, and say that you will meet him at the station.

4. Describe an American Fourth of July to a German cousin in Berlin. Tell what the celebration is for. Send him a small American flag, explaining the meaning of the colors, stars, and stripes.

5. Your absent father sends you a pair of skates for a birthday gift. Tell him the pleasure they gave. Describe your first use of them. Possibly you fell several times before you gained control over your feet.

6. A California cousin writes for some old-fashioned flower seeds such as grew in grandmother's garden. Answer, sending sweet williams, pinks, lady's slippers, bachelor's buttons, etc., telling him how to care for them, whether to plant in borders or beds.

7. Read the four letters which Meg, Jo, Beth, and Amy, in "Little Women," wrote their mother while she was away nursing the soldier father. Mrs. March could tell each letter even if it had not been signed. Why? So your letters are like you if you write naturally — just as if speaking. That is the great charm in a letter.

8. Write a letter to your absent mother, telling how the family manage without her.

9. You are spending your vacation on a farm. There are the hens and chickens, and you may have looked for the eggs hidden away in the hay. Perhaps you went to the pasture after the cows and helped to milk them. Write a letter telling your mother about your doings.

10. Then there is the orchard, the woods, the creek, with perhaps a few bullheads in it that you tried to catch, corn roastings, birds, squirrels, wild flowers, and many more delightful things unknown to city children. Write to a city friend about the things that interest you most, giving full particulars.

(If you are fond of the country, be sure sometime to read "Being a Boy," by Charles Dudley Warner. It describes a boy and his "chores" on a farm in a delightful way.)

11. Imagine a visit to Philadelphia, Boston, or Washington. Tell of the sights, historic buildings, monuments, etc.

12. Write your former teacher, asking her for an entrance certificate which you require to attend the High School in the city to which you have recently moved. Express your regret at leaving, etc.

(Inclose a stamp for reply, when you ask favors by letter.)

13. Imagine that you have just arrived in Liverpool from New York. Write to your friend Howard Adams, in Fort Wayne, Ind., describing the voyage.

14. Write a letter to a friend, describing points of interest in one of the following places: London, Berlin, Paris, Heidelberg.

XX. NOTES, FORMAL AND INFORMAL

114. Notes are of two kinds, formal and informal. Among the latter are notes of invitation, of acceptance or regret, of congratulation, of sympathy, of thanks for a gift. They are usually written to intimate friends, and are like the friendly letter in everything except length and the position of the heading. Instead of being at the top as in the ordinary letter, the heading is written at the lower left corner, about opposite the signature.

115. Formal notes, as the name indicates, are written according to a certain prescribed social form, and in the third person. One does not have to think "what to say" in a note of this kind, for they are all written after a set form. They are letters of occasion, such as invitation, acceptance, or regret, and their chief characteristic is courtesy, or good form. Courtesy demands that all formal invitations be acknowledged by either an acceptance or a regret. In the promptness with which formal notes must be acknowledged, and the brevity of their contents, they resemble business letters.

116. Notice the form of the following notes: —

1. INVITATION

Mr. and Mrs. James Edison request the pleasure of Miss Newman's company, at dinner, on the evening of May first, at half-past seven o'clock.

April twenty-second.

20 Russell Square.

2. ACCEPTANCE

Miss Newman accepts with pleasure Mr. and Mrs. Edison's kind invitation for May first, at half-past seven o'clock.

April twenty-fourth.

153 St. James's Place.

3. NOTE DECLINING

Mr. Webster regrets that absence from the city prevents his acceptance of the kind invitation of Mr. and Mrs. Sheldon for Thursday.

Niagara Falls,

July second.

117. Write formal notes as indicated below:—

1. Write a formal note in your mother's name, inviting a schoolmate to luncheon. Be sure to mention the hour.

2. Write an answer in your friend's name, declining the invitation.

3. Write a properly worded invitation for graduating exercises.

4. Accept an invitation to a concert.

5. The pupils of Room 11 are to have an exhibit of their school work, Friday afternoon, June 9, from 2 to 4, to which parents and friends will be invited. Write the invitation in proper form.

XXI. BUSINESS LETTERS

118. Business letters consist of applications for positions; letters of recommendation; of introduction; advertisements, and their answers; orders for goods; and acknowledgments of the receipt of goods or money; and all other communications that the proper transacting of business requires. A good business letter is brief, containing nothing but the business in hand. In this respect it is quite the reverse of the friendly letter. It must be so clear that no misunderstandings about the meaning can possibly arise. It must be plainly written, and, above all, adhere closely to the accepted forms. The neglect to put in date, or address, or the proper signature, is discourteous to the recipient of any kind of letter, but the omission of these in a business letter is unpardonable.

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

SYRACUSE, N.Y., Jan. 14, 1905.

MY DEAR MRS. ATWOOD,

This will introduce to you Miss Clara Goldsmith, a friend of mine, who is about to visit your city for the purpose of studying the

methods pursued in your primary schools. Any assistance you may be able to render Miss Goldsmith in making her visit pleasant and profitable will be gratefully appreciated by her as well as by me.

Yours very truly,

SAMUEL A. TAYLOR.

In the lower left corner of the envelope is written "Introducing ——," and the envelope is left unsealed, as it is carried by the person to be introduced.

LETTERS OF APPLICATION

119. Of the many kinds of business letters, the letter of application is perhaps the most valuable to young people, as their selection for a desirable position may depend upon the skill with which they have written their application. Letters of application are usually written in reply to advertisements. Read the following advertisement, and notice that the reply is brief, yet sufficient to set forth the qualifications of the applicant, and to mention a reference: —

WANTED. — A boy quick and accurate at figures who is also a good penman. Address, M. M. B., *News* Office.

20 HIGH STREET,
PLYMOUTH, MASS., Jan. 5, 1904.

M. M. B., *News* Office.

DEAR SIR:

Upon reading your advertisement in this morning's *News*, it seems to me that I can satisfy you in each particular, if you will give me the opportunity to try.

I am eighteen years of age, and have had some experience as office assistant with J. B. Holmes, for whom I worked after school hours this past year. Mr. Holmes has given me permission to refer you to him.

If you will allow me to call, I can give you proof of my quickness and accuracy in figures.

Hoping for a favorable reply, I am,

Yours respectfully,

JAMES WINTHROP.

120. Business letters are often required on matters like the following: —

1. Write to The Century Co., Union Square, N.Y., ordering the *St. Nicholas* to be sent to your brother. Mention in what way you send the money for the subscription.

2. Write to some publishing house for a book published by them.

3. Write to the publishers of some magazine or weekly paper, asking them to change the address of your paper. Be sure to give both old and new address.

4. Write to some person for whom you have worked, asking for a letter of recommendation.

5. Write his letter of recommendation.

6, 7. A dry goods firm has advertised for a girl over sixteen to assist in office work. Rapid addition required. Also for a boy over fourteen to do errands, with a chance to learn business methods. Apply in writing for these positions.

8. Write your teacher for permission to use her name as a reference in the preceding application.

9. Write to The Outlook Co., 287 Fourth Avenue, New York, renewing your subscription and inclosing three dollars for same.

10. Write to some railroad or steamship company, asking for some circulars of travel or descriptive folders which they have issued. State clearly just what you wish, or give their titles if you have seen them advertised.

121. Advertisements. — Study the forms of short advertisements in a good newspaper, and then write the following: —

1. Advertisement for lost dog. Describe animal and offer reward.

2. Advertise purse found.

3. You wish to find board for two weeks at some farmhouse not far from your city. It must be convenient to trains or to trolley cars.

4. A man wishes to exchange a bicycle for a typewriter. Write advertisement.

5. You want a house in the country for the summer. State number of rooms and conveniences required. Also price.

Write suitable answers to your advertisements, omitting No. 2.

122. Telegrams. — It frequently happens that messages must be sent in great haste; not only in business is this necessary, but in one's own family. Such occurrences as the safe ending of a journey, the arrival of trains, a sudden illness or accident, are all of sufficient importance to be sent by telegraph. Telegrams are expensive and must be limited in length (ten words are allowed for an ordinary message), so great care must be exercised in condensing all that is essential into the fewest words possible.

123. Copy the following telegram: —

NEW HAVEN, CONN., July 1, 1905.

MR. AUSTIN S. ESTEY,
564 Washington St.,
Boston, Mass.

We arrive at nine-thirty to-night. Meet us at South Station.

JOHN N. HOWARD.

124. Prepare the following telegrams: —

1. Telegraph your safe arrival in Chicago.

2. A friend is coming through your city. She telegraphs you the time her train will arrive, and asks you to meet her. Write the telegram.

3. You have just started off on a trip, and discovered that you have left your trunk key at home. Telegraph for it.

4. Your sister has been taken suddenly ill. Send for your mother, who is visiting at 149 Clarendon St., Boston.

5. She telegraphs you the time of her arrival home.

6. Your father was in a runaway accident, but not hurt. Telegraph this to his brother, and say that you will write particulars later.

7. You intend to pass through Rochester, N.Y., on your way from Boston to Buffalo. Telegraph a friend to meet you at the station in the first-named city, stating the time.

8. A non-resident has instructed you to sell a vacant lot of land. Telegraph details of an offer you have received, telling amount and terms of payment, and ask if you shall accept.

XXII. FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE

To the Teacher. — The following lessons on Figurative Language should be studied in connection with the reading of "Evangeline," or of other poems required in the course.

125. When we speak of a *bright* fire, a *sharp* needle, or *bitter* fruit, we use the words *bright*, *sharp*, and *bitter* in their plain or literal sense. We know that a fire is bright by seeing it; we know that a needle is sharp by feeling it; we know that fruit is bitter by tasting it. It requires no imagination to understand what each word means. But we can use these same words in a different way. We sometimes speak of a *bright* future, a *sharp* look, or a *bitter* experience. We cannot see or touch the things to which the adjectives apply; we can only think of, or imagine them. Here the words *bright*, *sharp*, and *bitter* are used in a figurative sense.

126. If we say "The children are singing," we use plain or literal language, but when the poet tells us that "the little stream went singing along," he is not satisfied to state a bare fact, but expresses his thought in figurative or poetical language. A brook does not really *sing*, but it sometimes makes a musical sound that reminds us of a person singing. It is figurative language that gives to poetry much of its charm. A study of this mode of expression will not only help us to understand the thoughts of great writers, but will cultivate our imagination, and make it easier to express our own thoughts in strong and graceful language.

Below are given examples of plain, or literal, and of poetical, or figurative, language. Study them carefully and tell which you like better in each case, and try to give a reason.

Literal	Figurative
1. His face was very brown.	1. Brown as a nut was his face.
2. The lily is drooping.	2. The lily hangs her head.
3. The muskrat built his house.	3. The muskrat plied the mason's trade.
4. The flowers are covered with snow.	4. Under the snowdrifts the flowers are sleeping.
5. Twilight had come.	5. Twilight had spread its dusky veil.
6. He looked sad.	6. Over his countenance flitted a shadow.
7. The snow is gone.	7. The earth has lost her snow-white robes.
8. The elm tree was covered with snow.	8. The elm tree was ridged with pearl.
9. Moss hung from the pines.	9. The pines were bearded with moss.
10. The moon rises.	10. The moon climbs the crystal walls of heaven.
11. The mountains rise toward the sky.	11. The mountains kiss high heaven.
12. The leaves are in motion.	12. The leaves clap their hands in glee.
13. Wisdom is of great value.	13. The price of wisdom is above rubies.

127. The following adjectives are used figuratively. Use each in a plain or literal sense; as, a smooth surface.

smooth manners	a sunny face	hot words
a soft answer	sweet music	a silver lake
dark deeds	a chilly reception	a burning question
thirsty flowers	a cool head	a heavy heart

The following adjectives are used in their literal sense. Use them figuratively.

a gentle child	sour milk	pure water
a smiling boy	a warm room	a dull knife
a cold day	hard wood	a bright light

128. All figurative language is based on a real or fancied resemblance of one object to another. Sometimes the comparison is fully expressed; as, "His hair was as white *as snow*." Here there is a direct comparison between *hair* and *snow*. When the comparison is formal and direct, and one object is represented as being or acting like another, the expression is called a **simile.** It is usually introduced by some such word as *like* or *as*.

A simile is a direct comparison between two objects of different kinds.

129. In each of the following sentences (1) find an example of *simile*, (2) tell what things are compared, (3) tell in what respect the things are alike: —

1. The muscles of his brawny arms
   Are strong as iron bands.

2. Black were her eyes as the berry that grows on the thorn by the wayside.

3. His face was as round and red as the harvest moon.

4. The cruel rocks they gored her side
   Like the horns of an angry bull.

5. Her lips are like the cherries ripe.

6. Their lives glided on like rivers.

7. Columns of pale blue smoke, like a cloud of incense,
   Rose from a hundred hearths.

8. His face glowed like a living coal.

9. Great men stand like solitary towers in the city of God.

10. The tear down childhood's cheek that flows
    Is like the dewdrop on the rose.

11. A man without religion is like a horse without a bridle.

12. Like the wind in summer sighing
    Her voice was low and sweet.

13. Be not like dumb driven cattle.

14. Blue were her eyes as the fairy flax,
    Her cheeks like the dawn of day.

15. My days are swifter than a weaver's shuttle.

130. Write sentences containing *similes* suggested by the following adjectives: —

Swift, gentle, busy, shy, hard, smooth, red, straight, bold, clear, bright, fresh, strong, steady, dark, heavy.

131. Write sentences containing *similes* suggested by the following verbs: —

Run, sing, work, leap, shine, rush, gleam, fly, glitter, glow, quiver.

132. Metaphor. — When the resemblance of one object to another is not formally expressed, as in *simile*, but is merely implied or suggested, the figure is called **metaphor.** In metaphor one object is thought of as if it were another. When the poet says, "The gentian reigned, an undisputed queen," he does not mean that the gentian is really a queen, but that it bears the same relation to other flowers that a queen bears to other women. The gentian is thought of as if it were a queen because it resembles a queen in its beauty and superiority.

It often happens that only one of the objects compared is named, the other being left to the imagination. In the expression, "The night has a thousand eyes," the poet thinks of the *stars* of heaven as if they were the *eyes* of a human being, and this produces a beautiful *picture*. In what respect do stars resemble the eyes of a person?

133. A metaphor is an implied or suggested comparison between two objects of different kinds.

134. In the following sentences (1) find examples of *metaphor*, (2) give the thought in plain language, (3) tell what things are compared, (4) tell in what respect the two things are alike: —

1. The lion is the king of the forest.
2. Sing for the oak tree, the monarch of the wood.

3. A mighty fortress is our God.
4. Thy word is a lamp unto my feet.
5. Education is the bulwark of our republic.

6. There is a garden in her face,
Where roses and white lilies blow.

7. All the world's a stage,
And all the men and women merely players.

8. And mildly from the sunny nooks
The blue eye of the violet looks.

9. Under the snowdrifts the blossoms are sleeping,
Dreaming their dreams of sunshine and June.

10. The little drowsy stream whispers a melancholy tune.
11. The pictures on the window were painted by Jack Frost.
12. October weaves rainbows of the forest leaves.
13. The sounding aisles of the dim woods rang to the anthems of the free.

14. Down in a green and shady bed
A modest violet grew.

15. Every pine and fir and hemlock
Wore ermine too dear for an earl.

135. Personification. — We have discovered that figurative language is the result of imagination. The poet imagines that the stars resemble eyes, because they are bright and seem to look at us. In like manner the branches of trees are thought of as the arms of a person; the snow is a white robe; the maples in autumn are on fire; the oak tree is a monarch. In every case the writer imagines that one thing resembles another thing in some striking way.

136. When the writer's imagination leads him to represent inanimate things as *persons* possessing life and intelligence, these things are said to be **personified**. In some of the examples given in previous lessons, things without life are represented as acting like persons. The drowsy

stream *whispers* a tune; the blossoms are *sleeping* under the snow. **Personification consists in attributing life and intelligence to things without life.**

137. Personification may be simply **suggested** by the figurative use of a noun, adjective, or verb; as, The thistle's purple *bonnet;* the *whispering* wind; a *laughing* sky; *dying* day; the *drowsy* stream; the *thirsty* flowers; the landscape *smiled;* the rose *blushed;* the daisy *looked up.* This is a kind of metaphor.

138. Personification is **direct** and **formal** when a human quality or inanimate thing is represented as a person thinking, speaking, or acting. Find examples of personification in the following selections, and tell whether the personification is formal or merely suggested: —

1. The summer tresses of the trees are gone.
2. The waves are singing a song of woe!
3. Pride goeth forth on horseback, grand and gay,
   But cometh back on foot, and begs its way.
4. Time passed, and Autumn came to fold
   Green Summer in her brown and gold.
5. The harebells nod as she passes by,
   The violet lifts its calm blue eye.
6. Mont Blanc is the monarch of mountains;
   They crowned him long ago
   On a throne of rocks, in a robe of clouds,
   With a diadem of snow.
7. The Sun came up upon the left,
   Out of the sea came he;
   And he shone bright, and on the right
   Went down into the sea.

Write sentences using the following as if they were persons: —

Wind, brook, stars, a hill, clouds, the sun, flowers, trees, the moon, a violet.

XXIII. RULES FOR CAPITAL LETTERS

139. Begin with a capital letter —

1. The first word of every sentence.
2. The first word of every line of poetry.
3. The first word of every direct quotation.
4. Proper nouns and proper adjectives; as, Andrew Jackson, Lower California, Spanish.

NOTE. — The words *street*, *river*, *mountain*, etc., when joined to proper nouns, usually begin with capitals; as, Franklin Street, the Hudson River, the Rocky Mountains. But there is also authority for writing these words without capitals; as, Franklin street, the Hudson river.

5. Names of the days of the week and the months of the year, but not of the seasons; as, Thursday, April, summer, winter.
6. Names of the Deity; as, the Eternal One, the Almighty.
7. Titles of honor or office when used with a proper name or in referring to a particular person; as, the President was accompanied by General Wood and the Secretary of War.
8. Important words in the title of a book or composition; as, Sights from a Car Window.
9. The words *North*, *South*, *East*, and *West* when denoting parts of the country, but not when denoting direction; as, They spent the winter in the South; Cleveland is east of Chicago.
10. The names of political parties, religious denominations, holidays, important events, and epochs of time; as, Democratic, Republican, Methodist, Roman Catholic, Thanksgiving, the American Revolution, the Civil War, the Middle Ages.
11. Names of things formally personified (pp. 380–381).
12. The pronoun I and the interjection O are always capitals.

XXIV. PUNCTUATION

140. A **period** is used: —

1. At the end of a declarative or an imperative sentence.
2. After an abbreviation, as, Mr., Hon., S.C.

141. An **interrogation point** is used at the end of an interrogative sentence (p. 12).

142. An **exclamation point** is used: —

1. At the end of an exclamatory sentence (p. 16).
2. After a word or words expressing strong feeling (p. 74).

143. The comma. — The following words and groups of words are usually separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma or commas: —

1. A vocative with its modifiers (p. 18).
2. A direct quotation (p. 99): —
   "It was the English," Kaspar cried.
3. An appositive with its modifiers (p. 135): —
   Lanier, the Southern poet, was a Georgian.
4. Parenthetical expressions: —
   His behavior, to say the least, was very rude.
5. The clauses of a compound sentence (p. 106): —
   The flower is asleep, but it is not dead.
6. A modifying phrase or clause when it comes first, or is merely explanatory (p. 107): —
   Entering the house, he found it empty and forlorn.
   He had a dog with him, which began to bark.

NOTE. — When the phrase or clause is restrictive, it is not separated by a comma (p. 164): —
   The law against gambling should be enforced.
   Is this the place where Captain Locker stays?

7. A nominative absolute with its modifiers (p. 281): —
   This done, the rest was easy.
8. The parts of dates and addresses: —
   Andrew Jackson was born March 15, 1767.
   Mr. Clinton B. Stiles, Auburn, N.Y.
9. *Yes* or *no* when it is only part of an answer: —
   Have you written the letter? Yes, I have.
10. In elliptical clauses the omission of a verb is usually indicated by a comma (p. 110): —
    Adams was born in 1735; Jefferson, in 1743.
11. A series of words or phrases in the same construction are separated from each other by commas, unless all the connectives are expressed (p. 81): —
    California, Oregon, and Washington are Pacific states.
    They roamed over hills, through valleys, and across swamps.

144. A **semicolon** is used to separate —

1. The clauses of a compound sentence, when they contain commas (p. 106) : —

He was a brave, large-hearted man; and we all honored him.

2. A series of loosely related clauses.

(See sentence 10, exercise 108.)

3. The words *as, namely, thus, that is*, etc., introducing one or more examples, are preceded by a semicolon and are usually followed by a comma.

(See many examples in this book.)

145. A **colon** is often placed before a long quotation or a list of particulars when formally introduced.

English has three cases: the nominative, the possessive, and the objective.

146. The **dash** is used —

1. To indicate a sudden change of thought: —

If my son were only alive — but why lament the past!

2. After a colon to introduce a direct quotation: —

The following passage is from Macaulay: —

3. To inclose a parenthetical phrase or clause: —

The next day — the last of our visit — we drove to Lewiston.

147. The **hyphen** has two important uses: —

1. To separate the parts of a compound word; as, *moss-covered.*

2. To show at the end of a line that a part of a word is carried over to the next line.

APPENDIX

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The English language is not only the most important, but, in many respects, the most interesting of modern languages. Five hundred years ago this language was used by only about four million people in the British Islands; now it is used by fully one hundred and thirty millions scattered over the whole earth. Five hundred years ago English was spoken by fewer people than German, French, Spanish, or Italian; now it leads all European languages.

What are some of the causes that have brought the English language from the last place to the first? The principal cause has been *colonization*. Nearly three hundred years ago English people began to plant colonies in America, and they naturally brought their language with them. These English colonies finally grew into a great nation, and now there are more English-speaking people in the United States than in England. The French possessions in Canada passed under English control in the French and Indian wars, the Louisiana Purchase nearly doubled the size of the United States, and thus vast areas of new territory were opened to English-speaking people. The same process of colonization has been going on in Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa.

The number of English-speaking people in America is constantly being increased in our day through *immi-*

gration. Nearly a million people come to the United States yearly, a large majority of them from countries where English is not spoken. If these immigrants do not learn to speak English in this country, their children surely will. We see this process going on every day in our American schools, where children whose parents were born in Germany or Italy or Poland or Sweden are learning to use English in place of the language which their ancestors used for countless generations.

Every American boy and girl should know the leading historical events connected with the origin and growth of this language.

The original inhabitants of England, who were called Britons, belonged to the Celtic race, and spoke a language somewhat like modern Welsh. They were conquered by the Romans at about the beginning of the Christian era; but though the Romans held a portion of the island for about four hundred years, the great bulk of the Celtic population was uninfluenced by Roman civilization.

In the fifth century the native Britons were driven into the west and north of the island by three German tribes, — the Jutes, the Saxons, and the Angles. They were piratical peoples, who had lived on the shores of the North Sea near the mouth of the Rhine, the Weser, and the Elbe. These tribes swarmed into Britain, bringing their own language with them. In time they all called themselves Angles, and their speech came to be known as English, or the language of the Angles.

This early period of the English language, extending from about 450 to 1200, is often called Anglo-Saxon, or Old English.

In 1066 occurred the battle of Hastings, in which William of Normandy overthrew Harold, the king of

the Saxons. William's followers were called Normans, or Northmen, because they were originally Scandinavians. They had settled in Normandy, France, about one hundred and fifty years before, and had there acquired the French language. As a result of the Norman Conquest, England had for more than a hundred years two distinct languages, the conquerors speaking French and the conquered continuing to use Anglo-Saxon. Finally the French ceased to be generally spoken, even by the descendants of the Normans, and the two languages gradually became blended into one. The Old English modified by the addition of many French and Latin words, and by the loss of many inflections, is called Middle English. This period lasted from about 1200 to 1500.

What is called Modern English begins about the time of Shakespeare. English had then assumed a form which we of to-day are able to understand without any special study. It contains many words that have now become obsolete, just as the English of the present time contains many words which Shakespeare never heard. But the English of Shakespeare is very similar to the English of to-day. The Modern English period extends from about 1500 to the present time.

Enough has been said to show that our language is a growth. It began with the German tribes who crossed the English Channel in the fifth century. These invaders naturally adopted words from the original Celtic population. Their language was greatly modified by their contact with the French-speaking Normans who conquered the Saxons in the eleventh century. The Anglo-Saxon and French tongues gradually coalesced, and became Modern English. As the French language was origi-

nally developed from the Latin, English contains many words of Latin origin.

The commercial relations of England with other countries, and the reading of foreign literature by English-speaking people, have resulted in adding many other words to our language. For example, from Italy we have *balcony*, *bandit*, *portico;* from Spain, *cargo*, *cigar*, *domino;* from Portugal, *apricot*, *molasses*, *parasol;* from Germany, *meerschaum*, *swindler*, *waltz;* from Russia, *polka*, *slave*, *vampire;* from Persia, *bazaar*, *caravan*, *lemon;* and from Arabia, *algebra*, *arsenal*, *coffee*.

A living language is always changing. The ancient languages, like Latin and Greek, do not change, simply because they are "dead." But it is true of every modern language that new words come into use, old words pass out of use, while other words undergo changes in meaning, spelling, or pronunciation. For example, *ferne* (distant), *swink* (labor), *halwe* (saint), *soote* (sweet), *clepe* (to call), were once English words, but they are now obsolete; that is, they have gone out of use. On the other hand, new words are brought into the language as the result of new discoveries and inventions. The words *telegraph*, *telephone*, *photograph*, *phonograph*, *dynamo*, and many other technical terms, are all comparatively new.

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